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COMMENCEMENT DAY.

The *School Journal*, published in connection with a young ladies' college, prints this affecting ballad, set to the tune of "Ten Little Indians."

Ten little Seniors sitting in a line,
One goes up and then there are nine;
They all go up and they all come down,
Each in her long white trailing gown.

CHORUS.

One little, two little, three little Seniors,
Four little, five little, six little Seniors,
Seven little, eight little, nine little Seniors,
Ten little Senior girls.

They all go up in a pretty little line,
Each one thinking, "Ah, isn't this fine?"
A pretty little ring they make around the President,
He wears a black robe looks fearful and hesitant.

CHORUS.

Ten little parchments tied up with white,
Ten little tears that dim their sight,
Ten little handkerchiefs pressed to the nose,
Ten more tears when the Latin speech closes.

Now they're (recitative):

One little, two little, three little Seniors,
Four little, five little, six little Seniors,
Seven little, eight little, nine little Seniors,
Ten little Junior girls.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, BOSTON.

SECOND DAY.

The afternoon session in the Elementary Department was commenced by the reading of a paper on the "Adaptation of Froebel's Educational Ideas to American Institutions," by W. N. Hallman, of Louisville, Ky. The speaker said that he believed a vast difference in the manner of education was needed in different countries, and that what was very good for one might prove to be very bad for another. Teaching must be adapted to different localities and governments. It was needed to consider what of foreign manners in teaching was naturally adapted to our own wants and adopt only such as could be used with advantage. A revolution in educational science was going on in Europe through the recent invention of Herr Froebel, who looked upon every young person as one who was simply a natural creature, capable of assimilating material for growth from its surroundings. To seek an approach to his principles was the labor of Froebel's active life. He was the inventor of the Kindergarten, but this was only one of the features of his great system, and if he seemed to attach most importance to this it was only because it was the beginning of his chain of youth education. The United States offered, in the opinion of the speaker, a fine field for this system of education. The American system was, he feared, much inferior to what it should be. He proposed the appointment of a suitable committee of educators from all over the land to examine this system, and to report their opinion of its adaptability to our needs at the next meeting of the Association, and a resolution was passed to this effect.

Dr. Adolph, of Newark, N. J., and Miss Elizabeth Peabody spoke in commendation of the Kindergarten system. The latter thought the chief reason of Froebel's success was that he began by teaching the children "how to learn." The speaker was warmly applauded at the close of her remarks.

At half-past four o'clock, a paper on "School Architecture and Furniture," by Ambrose P. Kelsey, of Clinton, N. Y., was the next article read. He considered that gross errors were often made in the plans of school buildings, both in city and country. High schools should be so constructed that they may be easily and symmetrically enlarged if necessary—cross lights in the windows should be avoided, and all imitations of woodwork and the like.

In country places many school-houses were often situated in the most dismal spot to be found, and very unpretentious in its character. Yet here had been educated some of our first scholars. But he would advise a spot removed from loafing places, stores, etc., covering at least half an acre, planted with trees and shrubs. It was unnecessary to level the ground, as the natural inequalities of the land could be made a source of beauty to the eye. A fence of some kind should be placed between the house and road, and the exterior of the building would not be of much importance. Set the building up well from the ground, and form winding walks upon which to reach it. Have a steep roof to the building, high and narrow windows, pretty large glass inside blinds or curtains, the paint a cool gray color, and line it with water-proof paper. The interval arrangement was considered, and mahogany desks suggested in place of the common

slab ones. No urchin who whittles his slab desk would think of so using one of mahogany. Ten or eleven feet was high enough for most school-rooms, and twelve square feet of floor should be allowed for each scholar. The best feasible plan for heating was to cover two-thirds of the common wood-burning stove with a jacket of sheet-iron, thus giving a hot-air furnace of the most approved pattern, and leave the other third to radiate its heat throughout the room. The audience, which had by this hour (5:30) dwindled fearfully, listened with attention to these suggestions and applauded the speaker at the close.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

In the Department of Superintendence a paper on the early withdrawal of pupils from school, its causes and remedies, was read by W. T. Harris, Superintendent of Schools of St. Louis, in which he took the ground that the child must be trained to strict obedience before he can be thoroughly initiated into the principles which underlie the highest success; that it is their directing power which he needs to be strengthened in. One of the principal causes of the early withdrawal of pupils from schools, he held, was to be found in neglect of early education, consequently he would have the age at which scholars were admitted to school reduced to four years, hoping thus to develop in the child a love of study, and sparing him from the mortification of being attached to classes for which his age had unfitted him. A second reason he found in defective discipline and want of skill on the part of the teacher, the first difficulty making the withdrawal of many scholars necessary and the other making it oftentimes advisable. A third, and perhaps the most prolific cause, was to be found in defective grading. The result of this mistake was to keep part of the members of a class strained to the utmost in order to maintain a proper standard, while others were not exercised to the extent required. Those who were overworked would very likely drop from the class and possibly from the school. He would do away with the system of yearly examination for promotion, believing a period of six weeks or two months sufficient to intervene between such tests. A. P. Stone, Principal of the High School at Portland, Me., followed. He deplored the fact that children were withdrawn from school at such an early age, but insisted that this was no modern failing. On the other hand, he held that the age of students in our colleges to-day would be found greater on the average than they were thirty years ago. The Chairman, Hon. John Hancock, of Cincinnati, Ohio, expressed disagreement with some of the views presented by Superintendent Harris, particularly with the proposal of frequently transferring pupils in order to retain them. W. E. Crosby, of Davenport, Ia., followed. He deprecated the idea of having children sent to the school-room at the age of four years. Mr. Hubbard, of Springfield, Mass., felt that the trouble they were discussing to-day was in a great measure owing to the feeling which prevailed that an education was not essential to success in business. H. F. Harrington, of New Bedford, dissented from the proposal of frequently transferring pupils. A general discussion between Mr. Harris and the other gentlemen who had spoken followed. The essayist who defended his position, Mr. Seaver, of Iowa, supported Mr. Harris' system. Rev. Mr. Stone, of Providence, also favored the same ideas. At 5 o'clock the discussion was closed, and the Association proceeded to elect officers for the ensuing year, as follows: President, W. T. Harris, of St. Louis; Vice-President, J. W. Paige, of Maryland; Secretary, A. P. Marble, of Worcester, Mass.

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

In this department the paper announced for the first hour having been read on Tuesday by Gen. Armstrong, the exercises were opened with a discussion of the papers of Mr. Greenough and Miss Brackett, on Normal Schools.

Mr. Williams, of Vermont, began the discussion by saying that he believed the work of the normal school was not to teach subjects, but methods. He didn't know whether the people were prepared for this or not, but was convinced that the method of teaching was, for a teacher, worth more than the subject. Very few teachers employed by him were qualified to teach geography without a book. No scholar ought to be admitted to a normal school until all subjects had been mastered, and then two or three years should be spent in learning how to teach.

Mr. George P. Beard, of Warrensburg, Mo., was the next speaker. He differed from Mr. Williams, and thought the fact that the teachers Mr. Williams mentioned were not able to teach geography without a book proved that subjects needed to be taught. Those fitting for teachers cannot devote time to the separate study of subjects and methods. They should be combined. He thought the form of recitation in the normal schools should be topical. A pupil should be required to tell the class what he knows about a given subject, and his opinions should be criticised by the class. This is not, as it is sometimes called, teaching on the part of the pupil, but reciting. Referring to Miss Brackett's paper, he thought the time would never come when women would be in charge of all schools, but mainly of the primary, and sometimes of the higher.

Mr. E. H. Cook, Principal of the Normal School at West Chester, Pennsylvania, followed Mr. Beard. He thought normal schools should not teach mere methods, but should teach the science of all education, developing the individuality of the teacher and his profession. Many of the best educated men are poor teachers. Knowledge is power only when it can be used.

Mr. Beard replied that he knew no better form to develop individuality than the topical form of recitation.

Mr. Chas. H. Verrill, of Pennsylvania, said the pupils of normal schools should have the thought that they were doing everything to fit them for teaching, and impressed upon them continually. He believed the written form of recitation the best.

Mr. Beard, in reply, said he thought four days' topical, oral recitation and one of written review each week the best method.

Mr. C. P. R. Bellows, of the Michigan Normal School, said he did not believe that subjects and methods could be separated. Subjects are apparatus, tools, with which to work, and must be used. In the Michigan school the first year is spent in a sort of review, with some teaching of methods. The second year they are taught the principles upon which methods are based. The third and fourth years methods and matter are united, though matter is subordinate to methods.

Mr. Williams said he still believed the teaching of subjects was not the legitimate work of the normal school, but belonged to the high schools and academies. It does not follow that because methods are taught, all teachers will be made to conform to one plan. Their individuality can be preserved.

At this point the discussion was closed, and Hon. T. W. Harvey, State Commissioner of Schools for Ohio, was introduced and read a paper on "Professional Training in Normal Schools." He said there was doubt whether it was wise to establish expensive normal schools for the training of teachers, while but a small proportion of those trained make teaching a permanent profession. Our higher schools can furnish the academic training required, and it is not desirable to duplicate this agency for the same work. Except incidentally in city normal schools there should be no academic teaching; academic instruction should be given previously, and normal school training should be purely professional. State normal schools will train many who will not continue as professional teachers for life. The course in the normal school should be adapted mainly to the wants of those who intend to make teaching a profession, leaving to normal institutes, State and county, and other institutions, the training of those who engage in the work for brief periods.

Mr. J. H. Hoose, Principal of the State Normal School at Cortland, N. Y., opened the discussion of the paper. He said there were two classes of minds—one which was able to find the central thought from a mass of facts; the other, which is only able to accept certain principles and apply them. The latter are a lower class of minds than the former. He believed teachers should agree upon certain things, and unite to stand by each other. In this way the profession can be established. Now each man stands or falls by himself. He coincided with the opinion expressed in the paper read by Miss Brackett, that the principles of teaching should be uniform; principles which should be held by all. A teacher doesn't lose his individuality by agreeing with others any more than a lawyer does. Miss Brackett, of New York, said there were no text-books by American authors equal to those by German teachers, who

have made the science of pedagogics a study.

Mr. Beard said the question of the best method of bringing normal instruction to the great mass of school teachers was the most important one which could be proposed. Normal institutes must be largely relied upon for this work, for normal schools cannot do it. The need is to secure the maximum of normal instruction at the minimum of time and expense.

Mr. Blake, of North Carolina, desired to be informed how long normal institutes should be held.

Mr. Beard replied that for four years he had held them for five or six weeks in July and August. Recitations in branches taught in the schools, followed by discussions of methods, etc., comprise the exercises in the daytime. Evenings are devoted to lectures, addresses, etc. They should be under the control of the State, and to be effective must be managed by experienced, efficient normal teachers.

Mr. Phelps, of Minnesota, said he agreed with the essayist that normal schools should be purely professional schools, and he believed they could be such, even if academic education were given. He would not teach methods so much as principles. The system which would be effective in Massachusetts would be a failure in Minnesota. Normal schools should build up the school system of the State, and the instruction must begin where that of other schools ends. In the West this requires academic combined with professional instruction. Most normal pupils are from the rural districts, where they are not fitted to receive professional instruction. Elementary normal schools—localised institutions—where subjects shall be taught, are necessary in the West.

Professor J. P. Wickersham, State Superintendent of Pennsylvania, was the next speaker. He thought there would for many years yet be two classes of teachers—one permanent and the other temporary. This necessitates two grades of normal schools. In one of these only professional work will be done; in the other, academic as well, where a few months' instruction will be given. We are drifting toward the time when these graded normal schools will be established.

Mr. A. Bronson Alcott, of Concord, Mass., said he doubted if the American system of education was equal to that of ancient Greece. He would go to Athens for a model rather than to Germany. He believed in idealists as well as practical men. Men must be up in the clouds to see what is going on. Common sense was valuable, but uncommon sense was more so. He entertained the company for a quarter of an hour with remarks developing this line of thought, and closed the discussion.

A committee on nominations of department officers reported as follows: For President, Mr. A. G. Hayden, of Massachusetts; Vice-President, Mr. J. Estabrook, of Michigan; Secretary, Mr. M. A. Newell, of Maryland. The report was adopted. The Secretary of the present year was chosen a member of the Board of Publication. Adjourned.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

The session of the Department of Higher Instruction was held at the lecture-room of the Institute of Technology, President Wallace, of Monmouth College, presiding.

The first paper read was a report of a committee on the proper pronunciation of Greek and Latin languages. This was read by Professor Tyler, chairman of the committee. In regard to Greek, it was recommended that the rules given in Goodwin's Greek Grammar should be substantially followed. It would be inconvenient in a newspaper report to give any further explanation of the ideas presented, as the use of the Greek letters would be necessary. In regard to Latin, the authority of Professor Lane, of Harvard, was mainly relied on. The long vowel is as follows:

a as in father, e as in fete, i as in machine, o as in tone, u as in rule; when short the same sound shortened. y as in French, u as in German.

a as in at, e as in ate, i as in in, o as in oil, u as in out, e as in eight, with a slight exaggeration of the English sound e at the end, as in eh oo rapidly pronounced, ui as in English.

The consonants should be pronounced as in English, with the following exceptions: c and g always have their hard sound as in car and garden; t is always hard as in time, s is always sharp as in sin, r and u when consonants (j and v) as y and w.

In the discussion that followed, President Beard, of Baltimore College, approved of the report, and said that the rules recommended corresponded substantially to the usage at the University of Virginia. With the leading Northern and Southern universities as leaders in the reform proposed, there could be no doubt that the mode of pronunciation would be adopted gradually by all, and there would be a uniformity of instruction in this country.

Professor Harkness advocated the following of the analogies of the English language in the pronunciation of the Latin and Greek, unless it could possibly be ascertained what was the original pronunciation. According to his observation the scholars of each nation—French, German, Italian or Russian—followed the analogies of their own language, and he thought English-speaking nations should do the same.

Professor Crosby also briefly approved of the English pronunciation. He regarded it due to the demands of patriotism. For an American or Englishman to follow the French style in pronunciation of Latin seemed like denying one's own country and being ashamed of one's native tongue.

Professor Bartholomew declared that what is called the Continental method cannot give uniformity. If the mode suggested by Professor Tyler be followed, there was eminent authority for saying that the pronunciation would not greatly differ from that of Cicero; at least, there would be no more variation than is now witnessed in the pronunciation of English in the various districts of England. He thought, also, it took less time to teach Latin in this manner.

Professor Hencle had followed the Continental method a number of years in teaching, but thought time would be saved by the method now proposed. In his college they had accordingly fallen back on the English method.

Professor Pickering, of the Technological Institute, was now introduced to make an address on "Laboratory Methods of Teaching Physics." The old method was solely by lectures, illustrated by experiments made in the presence of students. In the Institute this was still followed as the preliminary instruction, after which each student was given an opportunity to study the science practically by manipulating each for himself, under the direction of the professor, the apparatus, or whatever was used, in exemplifying the abstract truths of the science. In this way, the student at the time of graduation was skilled in the manual department of his science as well as the theoretical. In the study of chemistry, each student had a table and apparatus for himself, but in other branches the use of the apparatus was alternated, so that each in turn had opportunity to become accustomed to the various instruments and experiments. Some of these instruments were very costly, so that it would be practically impossible to provide for more than one student at a time. No difficulty had been found as to the breakage of instruments or apparatus, and the loss in this way had been no greater than it would have been among the same number of professors. The Professor illustrated his method on one or two instruments by a demonstration in the presence of the audience.

Prof. Slater, of Harvard College, followed with an address upon the "Method of Teaching Natural History." This, he said, as practiced by him, embodied the same leading principles as had just been suggested by Prof. Pickering, the aim being to give the student a practical quite as much as a theoretical knowledge of the science. A text-book served as the basis of teaching, but was quite insufficient for thorough instruction. A student in the first course is directed as his first lesson to go forth into nature and catch some kind of a living creature for study. It was no matter what he caught, whether a fly, a bird or a serpent. Having made a capture, the student is told to observe the creature and note down his observations. No matter what he observes, nothing can be too trivial, the point being to learn him to use his eyes. His notes are reviewed by the professor, and appropriate comment and suggestion made in regard to further inquiry. It was a trait of human nature that the study of dead things is at first repugnant to us. Living things are always interesting. The student accordingly begins with these, and this experience has almost invariably the effect to awaken his genuine interest or enthusiasm in the phenomena of nature. This is the second point gained. With this his attention can be fastened upon dead specimens, and the laws of science as ascertained through these can be taught. Fol-

lowing upon this the practice was to take up some one of the great sequences of nature as observable in the animal or reptile kingdom. In this way the highest class had during the past year gone through with a course holding up to view and demonstrating what is known upon the most present question of the times, namely, the origin of the human species.

With this address the session was closed.

EVENING SESSION.

The Committee on Nominations reported a list of officers of the Association for the ensuing year, which was accepted, and the list adopted: President, B. G. Northrop, Virginia; Vice-Presidents, Newton Bateman, Illinois; Geo. P. Beard, Missouri; A. J. Phipps, Massachusetts; Edward Brooks, Pennsylvania; J. H. Bickford, Virginia; John Swett, California; N. T. Lupton, Alabama; A. P. Stone, Maine; N. A. Calkins, New York; Miss Dr. A. Lathrop, Ohio; W. L. Holman, Kentucky; N. P. Gates, Arkansas; Secretary, S. H. White, Illinois; Treasurer, John Hancock, Ohio. A paper on "Compulsory School Attendance," by Newton Bateman, of Illinois, was read by its author. He advocated compulsion in this as well as in other matters of law. The idea of public schools supported by the State was born in the mind of the New England farmers, and now the world looked on its results with admiration. Legislation already enacted settled the question of free public schools, but it needed a system which should embrace all uneducated persons to make the law a perfect one. The speaker would have the people taxed for everything necessary to educate the nation in the best and most perfect way, and should any refuse to willingly pay a tax for this purpose their goods should be sold and they be compelled to do so. The great bugbear this compulsory attendance was considered by many people was a very silly iden, and far from being the real truth of the case. When the law was taken to compel a thousand and one necessary acts of citizens, such as drafts in case of war, quarantine for vessels, etc., it could not be considered a very great injustice to compel that the educational privileges provided by law be accepted by those who needed them.

The speaker occupied two hours in the delivery of his paper, and it being very late, and no time remaining for discussion, the meeting was adjourned.

THIRD DAY.

The third and last day's session was commenced on Thursday morning.

A communication was read from the German American Teachers' Association of Hoboken, N. Y., requesting permission to co-operate with the National Association at its general sessions and in the department meetings, and offering to present at the next annual meeting the plans and methods of German educators whose theories, if properly modified according to American institutions, it is claimed will for years to come remain our most valuable aids.

A letter was read from Mr. J. W. Bulky, regretting his inability to be present at the meeting. The presiding officer also spoke with regret of the absence of Mr. John D. Philbrick, the Superintendent of Schools, who is now absent in the country.

The reading of the essays of the day was commenced by Mr. John Swett, Deputy Superintendent of Schools at San Francisco, Cal., who took for his subject "The Examination of Teachers," in which he took strong grounds against the New England system of the annual examination and election of teachers as both vexatious and unnecessary, and tending in no way to accomplish the object for which it was intended.

He gave an amusing account of his earlier efforts at teaching and the vexatious consequent upon the shifting and transitory nature of the employment, which had the effect of driving from the profession the best teachers. He was happy to say that this ill-advised system had been abolished in California, and that now the office of school teacher had risen to the dignity of a profession, not dependent upon petty questions of local politics for support. Normal school diplomas were legally recognized and life diplomas given to teachers, which were recognized as authoritative throughout the whole State.

He thought this system should be extended over the whole country, and that there should be in each State a board of examination, composed of the most eminent professional teachers, whose certificate should be recognized in every other State. There has been much talk lately of civil service reform, but he thought there was more wire-pulling and chicanery used in the appointment of the three hundred thousand teachers of the United States than there was in filling all the offices within the gift of the Executive Department of the National Government. The remedy for the evil, as he thought, would be in the adoption of a system something as follows, which was submitted for consideration:

First—An organized system of State and County Boards of Examination composed exclusively of professional teachers.

Second—A graded series of certificates from life diplomas down to temporary certificates for country schools not kept all the year round.

Third—Examinations to be conducted in writing, and the percentage to be indorsed on the certificates.

Fourth—A legal recognition by each State of the professional certificates given on actual examinations by legal boards in every other State.

Fifth—A legal recognition by each State of the Normal School diplomas issued in other States and in other counties.

Sixth—A combined effort to secure longer terms of office to school trustees or inspectors, boards of education, county and city superintendents, thereby securing a greater degree of permanence in the offices of teachers, and more organized and systematized methods of education.

Professor Green, of Rhode Island, and Professor Northrop, of Connecticut, explained the system of examination pursued in the schools of their States, which they thought effectually precluded any chance of favoritism.

Mr. Lyons, of Providence, thought there should be some system of examination which would pass the teacher all over the State.

Dr. Levison, of New York, and Dr. Taylor, of Pennsylvania, also discussed the question, generally coinciding with the views expressed in the essay.

Mr. Abernethy, the State Superintendent of Ohio, explained the system of examination in that State, which had worked satisfactorily.

Mr. Hancock, of Ohio, and Mr. Stevens, of West Virginia, also indorsed the views of the essay in relation to a professional Board of Examination.

President Chadbourn, of Williams College, recognized the use of written examinations, but had made up his mind that he would never again appoint a teacher unless he had seen the candidate himself. He had appointed men to places who had bushels of certificates, and who were in no way fit for their situations.

Mr. Dana, of Vermont, fully indorsed this view of the subject, and thought that while it was of course important that a teacher should possess a good education, it was still more important that power to govern and impart instruction should be shown.

Mr. A. Bronson Alcott said that one of the first qualifications necessary to a successful teacher was personal magnetism, without which the instructor would be unable to impart knowledge to the pupil, and this could only be ascertained by personal examination of those competent to decide on the difficult question of temperament.

Reports were made from gentlemen representing various States in regard to the different methods of examination.

Mr. Beard, of Missouri, offered a resolution referring the subject under consideration to a committee consisting of Hon. John Swett, of California, as chairman, with instructions to report at the next meeting.

The resolution was adopted, without debate.

Mr. Crosby, of Iowa, offered the following resolution, which was referred to the above committee:

"Resolved, That this association gives its influence to the securing of a common recognition throughout the Union of normal school diplomas and State certificates as evidences of qualifications actually possessed by higher classes of teachers, principals, superintendents, of the States, counties and cities, provided that an equal and impartial basis of training and scholarship can be generally adopted."

After the close of the discussion, Professor Walter Smith, State director of art education in Massachusetts, read an interesting essay on "Drawing in the public schools," in which he argued that beside the ultimate good which would result from art education, its immediate effect would be to afford a relief to the over-worked children—a sort of safety valve to the high pressure system of education which is now too common in our schools, which he thought should be extended both ways—downward into the kindergarten, and upward into the polytechnic.

In teaching drawing it was to be borne in mind that it is the language of the eye speaking through the hand; and had the subject received proper attention it would now be as easy for our children to express what they see by drawing as to give their ideas in language. The pupils who may be deficient in drawing lines are not always deficient in the faculty of drawing conclusions; and hence, when they see a special teacher brought in to teach what the regular teachers cannot learn, then they very naturally conclude that it is something very difficult, and look upon its attainment as something that but few can hope to achieve, and this argues the necessity of having this branch of art taught by the instructors of each class, thus averting this great cause of lack of confidence in the minds of the pupils as to their own abilities.

He made a statement of the methods which he employed, beginning with the classes in the primary schools, and learning them what he called the alphabet of drawing; that is, straight lines and curves and their adaptation to the various figures given them for exercises. For the higher classes a little different system was pursued; but art education, when universally introduced, would be taught as any other study or science, beginning with the elementary and gradually progressing to the higher branches of art; and he hoped to see the time when a knowledge of drawing and music—arts hitherto neglected—would be as universal as of reading, writing, etc.

The idea which had so long prevailed that music and drawing could not be learned by every one was erroneous, and arose from the fact that there has been no organized system of teaching either in our schools, or at least until recently. Mr. Smith's essay occupied about an hour in its delivery, and was listened to with much interest throughout. At the close of the reading some notifications were given out and the association adjourned until two o'clock P. M.

The exercises of the Elementary Department began with the reading of a paper on "Physical Science in Elementary Schools,"

by C. O. Thompson, the Principal of the Worcester Free Institute of Industrial Science. He advocated the teaching of the natural sciences in the common schools; but he said that in most schools the present work is so imperfectly done that any addition to it would be folly. The first duty of ordinary schools is to come up to the standard of the best schools in methods and apparatus of instruction. In speaking of the physical sciences, he distinguished in favor of natural history. He would make room for the study in our common schools by abolishing the study of grammar and substituting therefor the teaching of language orally by the teacher. He quoted, in commendation of his views, from a letter from President White, of Cornell; President Clark, of the Amherst Agricultural College; Professor Chandler, of Columbia College; President Chadbourn, of Williams College; Professors Gilman and Dana, of Yale; President Smith, of Dartmouth, and other distinguished educators. Mr. L. N. Carlton, the Principal of the State Normal School of Connecticut, thought that the principles as laid down in the paper just read were mainly correct. He advocated the teaching of the elements of natural science in the primary schools. Mr. C. M. Woodward, the Dean of the Polytechnic Department of Washington University, St. Louis, thought there had been too much of a tendency to generalize and to teach too much in our own common schools; and thus some of our most earnest educational efforts had failed. In teaching natural science in our common schools he thought the study should be made as interesting as possible, and so taught as not to interfere with the elementary studies. At the conclusion of the discussion on Mr. Thompson's paper, a paper by Mr. Francis A. Underwood, of this city, was read. It treated of English Literature, and the place it should occupy in popular education. He thought that one of the greatest errors of our system is the constant reading and re-reading of books which are intended for elocutionary exercises.

The Normal Department was called to order by the President, C. C. Rounds, of Maine, who introduced Geo. P. Beard, of Missouri, as the first speaker. His subject was the relation between matter and method in normal instruction. The relation of matter to method he considered that of cause to effect. Subject-matter was the essential means of securing philosophical method in normal instruction. Mental science was an equally essential and a complementary means and should be taught simultaneously with the special and practical end of promoting teaching ability. Subject-matter should be used continually in normal instruction as a means to illustrate principles and methods of teaching. The academic theory and so-called professional course were sharply criticised and suggestions of a higher grade of normal schools were presented. The discussion was participated in by Messrs. Williams, of Vermont; C. H. Verrill, of Pennsylvania, and J. C. Greenough, of Rhode Island. After the discussion, Miss J. H. Stickney, of Boston, was introduced and spoke at some length on practice schools, their uses and their relation to normal training. Her remarks were principally confined to a relation of her experience in teaching after the system of practice schools. Her audience was very attentive and warmly applauded when she had finished.

The Department of Superintendents met at 2:45. President John Hancock in the chair. The first paper was read by Joseph Hodgson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Alabama, treating upon public education in the South. As an introduction, he drew a picture of the condition of the South as regards territory and capabilities, claiming that for natural advantages and possibilities of development it was one of the most favored regions of the earth. Unfortunately, however, the ignorance of the common people there, he said, was general and lamentably great. The condition was even worse among the whites than among the colored population, for while the latter, at the worst, were but at a stand-still, the former were actually growing more and more illiterate. Of the voters of that section, upward of 1,120,000 were unable to read or write. He was favorable to the idea of compulsory education, believing that if the Government has the right to tax the people to educate the masses, it had an equal right to make those masses receive the benefits of the levy. But he declared that the South was not in a condition to endure any great taxation for schools or any other purpose, as the rate now was generally in that section twice as high as in the older States. He hoped that the General Congress might see fit to extend a helping hand to these people. This was the more to be desired, as the States admitted to the Union after 1848 received gratuities of land for educational purposes far in excess of what the earlier members of the Union were given. At the conclusion of the address, President Hancock drew attention to the very great importance of Gen. Hodgson's utterances. John Eaton, Jr., United States Commissioner of Instruction, followed. He was strongly in favor of having aid extended to the Southern States. Mr. Blake, of North Carolina, hoped the paper read by Gen. Hodgson might be placed before all the reading men of the country, believing that it expressed the exact condition and great need of the South. Mr. Hubbard, of Iowa, expressed similar views. Hon. J. P. Ucheron, Superintendent of Schools, Pennsylvania, stated that he opposed certain bills heretofore presented to Congress, yet favored any bill that would help to build up the public schools of the

suffering South. Pennsylvania and Ohio would be very likely to oppose Mr. Hoar's bill, but would support any bill that would assist both the whites and the blacks. Dr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, desired to have a system of management inaugurated in the South similar to the Rhode Island system, or the itinerant system of Sweden. President Hancock closed the debate with a touching tribute to many of those able educators endeavoring to educate the people of the South. W. T. Harris, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, read the report of the Committee on School Percentage. They favored keeping a daily and monthly average of attendance. They would also have all scholars dropped from the school-roll who were absent over five days. The report was adopted.

The session of the department of higher instruction was opened with an address upon the "Method of Teaching English in High Schools," by Professor March, of Lafayette College, Pennsylvania. In the preliminary study of English, thorough drill in the analysis of sentences was recommended. In regard to the subsequent course of instruction, the Professor made the following suggestions: First, that good habits of speech in conversation are caught rather than taught. Second, the declamation of choice passages of English literature is an important means to proper education. Third, there should be special exercises in regard to errors of speech, not such errors as were comprehended by the word "slang," but errors of construction of sentences. At the close of the address several questions were asked the professor, and Professor Tyler, of New Bedford, made remarks in general approval of the ideas advanced by the lecturer. The next part on the programme was a discussion of the bill now before Congress for the establishment of a national university. President Eliot, of Harvard, being called upon to express his views, said that as he understood the matter the Association had never committed itself in favor of the bill, and he hoped that no action of that kind would be taken without full discussion. He did not approve of the project at this time. Prof. Hoyt claimed that the Association were already pledged to the measure. Professor Northrop thought this an inopportune time to press the bill. A general discussion followed between these gentlemen, when the whole subject was referred to a committee consisting of President Eliot, Professor Hoyt and the President of the University of Alabama. Officers of the department for the coming year were elected as follows: President, D. A. Wallace, of Illinois; Vice-President, J. D. Runkle, of Massachusetts; Secretary, W. D. Henkle, of Ohio.

At half-past four o'clock the general association took possession of the hall of the normal school building. After reading the names of the officers elected in the morning, President White introduced Mr. Mori, the Japanese minister to this country, who was received with hearty applause.

Mr. Mori said that he was happy to say a few words respecting the educational movement in Japan. All had heard of the social and political revolution in that country. One of its greatest results was the appointment of a bureau of education. He spoke of the poverty of the national language, and said it was a great hindrance to their progress. Many students had been sent abroad to become acquainted with foreign institutions, and some had returned. Their reports had been beneficial in effect, but the officials could hardly comprehend the nature of foreign institutions, and so the government decided to send the high officials to learn for themselves. He was happy to state that they had already become convinced of the need of educating their youth, both male and female. The commissioner of education, who was with the embassy, expressed himself strongly in favor of generally introducing the English language into that country.

The mayor of Yeddo, who is now in town, and has a million of people under his care, said that the great basis of education is intercourse with foreign countries. His sentiment was, that education must be undertaken first in preference to railroads and other accompaniments of an advanced civilization. In Japan, many schools are already started, and the whole nation has turned its mind in that direction. His suggestion to the Home Government was that prominent educators abroad should be consulted, and a number of normal schools established in Japan, so that a class of good native teachers could be trained. If advanced education should take strong root in Japan, it would not only benefit that country, but have a strong influence over the whole of Asia, for he considered Japan to be the gate of Asia. He called for suggestions on the subject, and said that they would be thankfully received through the Commission of Education of that country.

The president, Mr. White, replied happily and briefly, thanking the ambassador for the honor conferred on the association by his presence, expressing full sympathy with him in his advanced views, and promising the cordial aid and co-operation of the association with his praiseworthy efforts. At the request of some of the friends of education present, he asked Mr. Mori to say a few words in Japanese.

Mr. Mori laughingly replied that he did not know what to say, but at Mr. A. Bronson Alcott's suggestion, he told a short story in his native tongue, to the great edification of his hearers. Mr. Mori again spoke in English. He predicted that in time, when public schools are generally established in Japan, the English language would become the prevailing language of the country, and the native language, which, as he before said, was very poor,

would in time only be preserved as a curiosity.

The following named gentlemen were chosen honorary members of the association: William Gaston, the Rev. R. C. Waterston, D. D., Francis H. Underwood, A. Bronson Alcott, Henry Barnard, Mr. Mori, the Japanese minister, and Edward Shippen.

The following resolutions were then adopted:

Inasmuch as, through the kind and overruling providence of God, the National Educational Association has been permitted to hold its twelfth annual meeting, in the fourteenth year of its existence, in the city of Boston, we would, in the first place, render unfeigned thanks to our Heavenly Father for his goodness and watchful care in permitting a few of the original members of this association to meet on this occasion and welcome to their numbers so many noble and distinguished coworkers; and we would further thank our Heavenly Father for the manifest influences of his guiding spirit in producing such remarkable unity of feeling and action in our deliberations.

Also the following:

Whereas, Congress has passed through the House of Representatives, and has under consideration in the Senate, a measure, first setting apart the net proceeds of the sales of the public lands for educational purposes, reserving one-half of the annual profit of these lands as a permanent fund, and disbursing the other half, together with accruing interest, annually, among the several States for a number of years, on the basis of illiterates, as a method of aiding most those States that need most, and afterward on the basis of the entire population.

Whereas, this aid is bestowed upon such conditions only as are calculated to secure with the greatest certainty the object proposed, the universal education of the people; thus in no way interfering with the constitutional relations of the General Government to the several commonwealths; and

Whereas, We are profoundly impressed with the necessity of this aid to overcome the ignorance which is so perilous to this country; and

Whereas, We can see how it will aid in giving a new impulse to education in the most intelligent communities; and

Whereas, This action of Congress is a recognition of the principle of national aid to education which this association has emphatically recommended; therefore,

Resolved, That this association heartily commends the action taken by Congress, and calls upon the friends of universal intelligence and virtue in the land to give this bill their hearty support as one the importance of which is not outweighed by that of any other measure before Congress.

Resolved, That we recognize the great importance of education in art, and that we most earnestly recommend to the boards of education and the teachers of the country the early adoption of measures looking to its introduction into all our schools.

Resolved, That in the careful special preparation of the great mass of teachers we have the only guarantee of the success of our public school system, and that we desire earnestly to urge forward all well-directed efforts to this end, through the establishment of normal schools of the different grades, of institutes and such other instrumentalities as the pressing needs of the country demand.

Resolved, That the introduction into the public schools of correct methods of instruction in the elements of science is a subject demanding immediate and most careful attention.

Whereas, The profession of teaching stands at the source of all other occupations; and

Whereas, In the United States the subjects connected with education must, in order to the efficient support of schools, be understood by the people generally; and

Whereas, Many of the subjects connected with teaching and the organization and support of schools require extended and profound examination under great difficulties; and

Whereas, The compensation or profit of those engaged in the business of professional educators does not make it possible for them to be at the personal expense of these labors, and publications of the sort demanded are not yet sufficiently profitable to invite voluntary private efforts adequate to these professional examinations of facts and systems; and

Whereas, There is no other concern more national or more intimately affecting the entire body politic; therefore

Resolved, That we congratulate ourselves and the country that the National Bureau of Education has been enabled to some extent to begin to meet those wants by pursuing those investigations which are increasing the value of educational statistics, and by publishing occasionally, for the benefit of the educators of the country, the rare products in the educational field in this and other countries.

Resolved, That, in our opinion, facilities for the publication of circulars of information by the National Bureau of Education should be increased; also, that Congress should provide for a large edition of the annual report of the bureau, to be distributed immediately on its publication, as an executive document, among the teachers and school officers of the country, in order that they may have at once in the conduct of this work in the current year the advantage of its aggregation of information drawn from the previous year's experience.

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Mr. M. A. Aldrich moved that the thanks of the association be tendered to the Hon. George F. Hoar, of Worcester, and Mr. Pierce, of Mississippi, and others, for their efforts in bringing before Congress a bill devoting a portion of the public lands to educational purposes.

Resolutions were also adopted complimentary to the newspapers for their notably accurate reports of the proceedings; to the hotels and railroads for favors extended; to the people and city of Boston for generous hospitality, and to the committee of arrangements.

After the transaction of some routine business, Mr. White made a brief closing address, expressing great pleasure at the results of the gathering. He then introduced Mr. B. G. Northrop, the newly-elected president, who accepted the position in a few and well-chosen words. He stated that the next meeting of the association would be held in Elmira, N. Y.

The association then adjourned sine die. The department meetings were held as usual in the Girls' High and Normal School building, the department of higher instruction meeting under the same roof instead of assembling at the Institute of Technology as on the previous day.

The exercises of the elementary department began with the reading of a paper on "Physical Science in Elementary Schools," by C. O. Thompson, the principal of the Worcester Free Institute of Industrial Science. He advocated the teaching of the natural sciences in the common schools; but he said that in most schools the present work is so imperfectly done that any addition to it would be folly.

In speaking of the physical sciences he distinguished in favor of natural history. He would make room for the study in our common schools by abolishing the study of grammar, and substituting therefor the teaching of language orally by the teacher. Mr. I. N. Carlton, the principal of the State Normal School of Connecticut, thought that the principles as laid down in the paper just read were mainly correct. He advocated the teaching of the elements of natural science in the primary schools.

Mr. C. M. Woodward, the dean of the polytechnic department of Washington University, St. Louis, thought there had been too much of a tendency to generalize and to teach too much in our own common schools; and thus some of our most earnest educational efforts had failed. In the St. Louis schools the study of the natural sciences occupied but an hour a week. Even with such a brief time he found that a wonderful degree of progress had been made, even by the youngest pupils.

At the conclusion of the discussion on Mr. Thompson's paper, a paper by Mr. Francis A. Underwood, of this city, was read. It treated of English literature, and the place it should occupy in popular education. He thought that one of the greatest errors of our system is the constant reading and re-reading of books which are intended for elocutionary exercises. Literary hash is the proper term for these compilations. He said that the course of reading in our schools should be wholly reformed and revised, and so directed as to give pupils a course of instruction in English literature, thorough but not necessarily exhaustive. Our own literature must be considered as the best part of our history, and the just basis of our national pride. It may be said to have begun with the memory of men now living; for the venerable Bryant is the earliest of our great poets, and Irving, Cooper and Channing were the first of our classical prose writers. In less than fifty years we have produced works in all departments of human thought which the world will not let die, and which our mother country is becoming proud to own and adopt.

In the normal department the first exercise was the reading of a paper on "The Relation between Matter and Method in Normal Instruction," by Mr. G. P. Beard, of Missouri. He said the teacher must use matter and method together. The teacher, like the artist, can only succeed by understanding the material to be used by him and the means of using it. The teacher must know what as well as how to teach. The normal school ought to supply knowledge of the philosophy of teaching. Method is being taught in connection with matter. The mission of the normal school is to improve our schools, and to do this it must improve teachers.

Some normal schools go, however, to the extreme of teaching merely matter; they are little more than academies. The true system is a combination of both. The use of matter should be scientific; everything should be accurate, suggestive, arousing the teacher to new life. Normal teaching should not be unmethodical, but on the contrary systematic and complete. Weekly written reviews tend to this. A thoroughly scientific course is the best basis of right method in elementary teaching. It requires the ripest scholarship and rarest tact to convey truth to the minds of children. The normal problem is not to multiply a given style of teachers, but how to make the most and best of individual teachers. A philosophy of teaching is needed, and then it must be applied to schools and individuals according to the peculiar circumstances of each.

The discussion of the paper was opened by Mr. Williams, of Vermont. He did not agree with the essayist. It is admitted that teaching is a profession; and if so, the normal schools must be elevated to a professional basis.

Mr. Charles H. Verrill, of Pennsylvania, said that if only professional work was done in normal schools many of them would have very few pupils.

Mr. Greenough, of Rhode Island, said that the plan of giving professional in-

struction only would not preclude the attainment of knowledge; for, in instructing how to teach a subject, knowledge of the subject-matter itself is acquired if pupils are deficient in it.

The discussion of this subject was closed, and Miss J. H. Stickney, of Boston, opened the discussion on "Practice Schools—Their Uses and Their Relation to Normal Training." A teacher, she said, needs three things: a knowledge of psychology in relation to teaching, which, as it is not imparted in high schools, must be in normal schools; a knowledge of social science is also necessary, and practice, the latter of which is worthy of one-third of the attention given to the whole matter.

Practice schools will enable teachers to acquire much which they cannot get in any other way. By practice schools she did not mean model schools—schools of thirty—but rather a school of ten grades, with sixty pupils in each grade. She would allow those learning to teach to observe the teaching of classes for a while and then gradually permit them to take charge of classes. In her own practice school, she requires her scholars to observe the teaching of a class, and to make a complete report of its every stage. When they have become able to give such a report, they are allowed to make criticisms upon others.

The most earnest attention was paid to Miss Stickney during her remarks by the entire audience, which crowded the room. A business meeting of the association rendered an adjournment necessary at this point, and in a few words Mr. Rounds, president of the department, returned his thanks for the courtesies of the members during the sessions, and declared the department adjourned until 1873.

The department of superintendence met at 2:45. President John Hancock in the chair. The first paper was read by Joseph Hodgson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Alabama, treating upon public education in the South. As an introduction, he drew a picture of the condition of the South as regards territory and capabilities, claiming that for natural advantages and possibility of development it was one of the most favored regions of the earth. Unfortunately, however, the ignorance of the common people there, he said, was general and lamentably great. The condition was even worse among the whites than among the colored population; for while the latter, at the worst, were but at a standstill, the former were actually growing more and more illiterate.

Of the voters of that section upward of one million one hundred and twenty thousand were unable to read or write. He was favorable to the idea of compulsory education, believing that if the Government has the right to tax the people to educate the masses it had an equal right to make those masses receive the benefits of the levy. But he declared that the South was not in a condition to endure any great taxation for schools or any other purpose, as the rate now was generally in that section twice as high as in the older States. He hoped that the General Congress might see fit to extend a helping hand to these people.

John Eaton, Jr., United States Commissioner of Instruction, followed. He was strongly in favor of having aid extended to the Southern States. Mr. Blake, of North Carolina, hoped the paper read by General Hodgson might be placed before all the reading men of the country, believing that it expressed the exact condition and great need of the South. Mr. Hubbard, of Iowa, expressed similar views. Hon. J. P. Urcheron, Superintendent of Schools, Pennsylvania, stated that he opposed bills heretofore presented to Congress, yet favored any bill that would help to build up the public schools of the suffering South.

Dr. Henry Barnard, of Connecticut, desired to have a system of management inaugurated in the South similar to the Rhode Island system, or the itinerant system of Sweden. President Hancock closed the debate with a touching tribute to many of those able educators endeavoring to elevate the people of the South. W. T. Harris, Superintendent of schools, St. Louis, read the report of the Committee on School Percentage. They favored keeping a daily and monthly average of attendance. They would also have all scholars dropped from the school roll who were absent over five days. The report was adopted.

The department of higher instruction held a session at half-past two in the afternoon, which was opened by an able paper by Professor March, of Lafayette College, on "The Method of Teaching English in the High School." The following are the chief suggestions made: Good habits of speech in conversation are caught rather than taught, hence there should be frequent and free conversations between teacher and pupil. The declamation of choice passages from the best authors is recommended; also special exercises in errors of speech, by which is meant not vulgarities, but rather violation of syntax and grammatical principles in general. Translating from other languages is really a study and practice in English, and as such should be carefully improved. The paper was followed by questions from various members, and additional suggestions from some of them.

Professor Green, of Brown University, called attention to the difference in arriving at the meaning of a sentence in a dead language and a modern one. In the former case the thought is constructed word by word, while in the latter it is unfolded like a germ and is understood without any process of synthesis. The former is composition, the latter exposition. Hence the need of entirely different methods of teaching modern and ancient languages.

Mr. Tuttle spoke briefly of the advantage

of the topical treatment of various studies as a method of teaching English. The time having more than expired for the consideration of this subject, Professor Hinckle was called upon to report for the Committee on Nominations, and announced the following names: For President, Dr. D. A. Wallace; Vice-President, J. D. Runkle, of the Institute of Technology; Secretary, President Eli Tappan. President Tappan declined to serve, and the name of Professor Hinckle, of Ohio, was substituted. These gentlemen were then elected unanimously.

Professor Hoyt, chairman of the committee appointed to report on the establishment of a national university, was next called upon to open the discussion of the subject as laid down in the order of exercises. He said that the time remaining for this discussion would not be sufficient to allow the thorough treatment which so important a question demanded, and preferred that the time should be occupied with the expression of the views of the members of the Association.

President Eliot, of Harvard College, took the opportunity to express his opposition to the bill as now pending before Congress, though favoring the project of a national university in itself considered. He thought the present not the time to urge such a bill as this, though twenty years hence he might favor it. At present other measures were of more pressing importance—such, for example, as that of offering pecuniary aid to the different States for educational purposes in proportion to their population. He was afraid, however, that the authority of the Association might be used before Congress as favorable to the present bill, though it had passed no vote expressing a decided opinion one way or the other. For this reason he wished the opponents of the bill might have a chance to express in full the grounds of their opposition.

Professor Hoyt then rose to correct the statement of President Eliot in regard to the expression of the Association on this point, and showed by its records that it had three times emphatically indorsed the recommendation of its committees for the establishment of a national university. President Eliot replied that such indorsement had been only general, and that there is very general opposition to the present bill among the foremost educational men of the day. Some further discussion ensued, ending in the motion of Professor B. G. Northrop that a committee be appointed to consider this very bill and report at the next annual convention of the Association. The motion being carried, the Chair appointed President Eliot, Professor Hoyt and President Hodgson, of the University of Alabama. The session was then closed.

The exercises of the last three days were closed by a fine reception tendered to the Association by the City Government, which took place in Faneuil Hall. About three hundred of the members and their friends assembled at an early hour, and did justice to a fine collation spread on three sides of the hall. Nearly an hour was passed pleasantly at the tables, Carter's band furnishing the music meanwhile, and at a little past nine o'clock the Rev. Mr. Waterston again called the assembly to order and made a brief address. He then read a letter from Mayor Gaston, expressing his regret at being obliged to be absent from the city at such a time, and in his stead introduced the Hon. A. H. Rice.

Mr. Rice expressed his gratification at the encouraging inferences to be drawn from the fact that the Association is a national one, and contrasted the general appreciation of education now manifest in this country as compared with but a few years past. He was glad to assure those present of their cordial welcome to the city, and of his desire that the remainder of their stay in Boston might be very pleasant.

Mr. Waterston presented Professor B. G. Northrop, President elect of the Association, and recently selected by the Japanese Government for an important position in connection with the educational movement in that country.

Mr. Northrop said, in reply to the question what had inspired this advance sentiment in Japan, that the Father of all had been his author, but that much was owing to governmental changes. The uniting of the two governments in 1868 had done much to bring about this result. Now, instead of the long-existing stagnation, there is an unparalleled enthusiasm. Our Congress, busy in its President-making, couldn't find time to decide the question of admitting six Japanese students to West Point. If next season they are not admitted, England and France, now losing prestige in Japan, will open their doors.

The Hon. Joseph White, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, who was next introduced, spoke in defence of the Bible in schools. Mr. White, of Ohio, President of the Association, complimented the city for its hospitality, and closed by introducing General Eaton, United States Commissioner of Education, to preside during the remainder of the evening. General Eaton presented the Hon. Mr. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, who spoke for his State, making some pleasing comparisons between it and Massachusetts, in their historic associations and great men.

Mr. John Swett, of California, next spoke, being introduced as the Horace Mann of the Pacific coast, and was followed by Colonel Joseph Hodgson, of Alabama. He said that to speak in Faneuil Hall was an event in the life of any Southern man, and he felt inadequate to the occasion. He was a Southern man, and gloried in it—in the magnificent achievements of the statesmen who moulded the Repub-

lic for years. The one thing which divided North and South was dead. The Southern people accept this fact and all the issues connected with it.

The people of Alabama are among the poorest in the country. One-half of their population cannot read; nearly one-third of the votes to be cast in November will be given by men who cannot read or write, and who are ignorant of the principles of government. In behalf of this population he appealed to them by the history of the past and the feelings of a Christian people, to extend the hand of fellowship and aid to his unfortunate constituents. He called upon them to use their influence to have every foot of public land consecrated by Congress to the cause of education.

Mr. W. T. Harris, Superintendent of Public Schools in Missouri, compared the East and the West, speaking of the former as the land of dreams and expectations, and spoke of the influence this country must wield in the future in furnishing the directive power of the world.

Mr. Waterston at this point brought the speaking to a close, wishing the members of the Association success and happiness in the future. A short time more was spent in social conversation and leave-takings, and one by one the company departed.

Boys and Girls' Department.

CONDUCTED BY L. NATHANIEL WENSHFIELD, "SNOWDROP."

PLAYING SCHOOL.

SIX IS A ROW ON THE DOORSTEP THERE:
NICE LITTLE SCHOOLBOYS AM, PRIM AND FAIR.
FANNIEST NOSES, DIMPLED CHINS;
LISTEN AWHILE! THE SCHOOL BEGINS.

"Classes in 'rhythmic,' come this way!
Why were you absent, Mary Day?
Now, Miss Susan, what's twice four?
Maybe it's 'leven, maybe more."

"Johnny, don't blow in your brother's ear;
Stop it! or must I interfere?
Say your tables—now begin;
'Twouldn't might come dropping in!"

"What would they ever say to us,
Finding schoolboys such a fuss?
Rahy, Jenny, how is that?
B O U, dear, don't spell cat."

"Terrible boy! your face is red—
Why will you stand upon your head!
Class in spelling that will do;
Here's 'sterilization' for you."

Faces as pure as the morning sun,
Voices that ring with harmonies true;
Sweet is the lesson you impart!
Sweet! and I learn it all by heart!

SIX IS A ROW ON THE DOORSTEP THERE:
NICE LITTLE SCHOOLBOYS AM, PRIM AND FAIR.
FREE OF THE WORLD, AND ALL ITS PAIS;
WOULD I COULD JOIN YOUR SCHOOL AGAIN!

OUR WEEKLY CHAT.

Many a boy and girl, at the seaside and in the country, often as they wake up in the morning, cannot repress a sigh, when they think that but a few short weeks more, and then school again! How the time flies! It seems, to them, but a week since they left their books, and here they must soon return to them. But these thoughts seldom linger. The pleasure of active summer life soon dispels them. Well, vacation is the time for joyful recreation, and we like to see all the young folks, wherever they may be, have splendid times and plenty of healthy exercise, so that when the few remaining weeks of leisure have flown by they may return refreshed and invigorated, and strengthened for another nine-month's battle with new, and often more difficult studies.

Boys, we have a few words to say to you, this week, about learning to swim. A short time ago, we witnessed from the deck of a steamboat, the painful spectacle of a boy drowning. While out rowing, his boat by some means or other was overturned; although at no great distance from the shore, having no knowledge of swimming, all his efforts to reach it were in vain, and he sank never again to rise. And how many notices of a similar character do we see in the papers at this season of the year? Any one can learn to swim, when young, with a little perseverance, and although good swimmers are sometimes drowned, it is usually chargeable to rashness. Certainly it is not because they can swim.

We have already received some responses to our call for problems, and for these the boys and girls have our thanks; we now have on hand a supply of good algebraical and arithmetical puzzles, with which from time to time we shall take pleasure in puzzling our "gymnasts."

Charles A. B.'s hidden cities were dropped into our accepted drawer. All his answers to puzzles in JOURNAL No. 81 were correct. Julius Weiss sent us the answer to the problem in No. 80 of the JOURNAL; his answer we find to be the correct one. Although the puzzle he incloses is old, it is so good we shall probably make use of it at some future time. J. H.'s square words are too easy, so we must drop them into the waste-basket. The letter from J. Nehrbas came to hand. The best of his problems will occasionally find a place in our "Gymnastics" column. The charade by Zeta appears in this number. M. L.'s answers to the puzzles in JOURNAL No. 80 were correct.

GYMNASTICS FOR THE BRAIN.

NO. 1.—CHARADE.
My first, with hands and face so bright,
Goes rattling on from morn till night;
At times 'tis much too fast, and so
Requires a timely check, you know.
My second's watched with zealous care,
Most boys conceal some treasure there;
Buttons and marbles, tops and string,
Knives large and small—yes, everything.

Deep in my whole my first is found,
With twofold darkness compassed round;
Though so obscure, I humbly pray
You'll whisper me, without delay.

ZETA.
NO. 2.—DECAPITATIONS.
1. Behad an animal, and leave a vegetable.
2. Behad a vegetable, and leave something cool.
3. Behad an animal, and leave a preposition.
4. Behad one animal and leave another.
5. Behad a power, and leave always.
DEWDROP.

NO. 3.—DOUBLE ACROSTIC.
1. Bright flash the eyes where those about;
And merry the face on which they're found.
2. Nowadays, for fact, I'm told,
This is an enviable position to hold.
3. Way, way up in the midnight sky,
These in twinkling numbers lie.
4. Some of silver and some of gold,
These are found where seas have rolled.
5. With nodding plume on sunny morn,
This, the soldier's head adorns.
6. If even your guessing this hath shown,
It still will have to be unknown.
7. This is very sweet, I think,
Else would the gods ne'er stoop to drink.
8. To those who honestly have striven,
This, deservedly, is given.
My initials so sunny and sweet,
In laughing eyes we always greet.
Dark clouds and murky skies
Predict the finals will soon arise.
J. R. SEVER.

NO. 4.—A FLOCK OF BIRDS.
1. Three-fourths of an army and wealthy.
2. A consonant, a partition and two-thirds of an owl.
3. A consonant and a noise.
4. A color and a sudden move.
5. Part of a ship and a disturbance.
6. A boy's plaything. FANNIE A. G.
NO. 5.—ARITHMETICAL PROBLEM.
One man said to another, "Give me one of your sheep, and I shall have twice as many as you." The other replied, "No, give me one of yours, and I shall have as many as you." How many had each?
B. H. J.

NO. 6.—CONCEALED FRUIT.
1. I can see nothing sweet or angelic about her.
2. Do not leave me lonely and sad.
3. With hope aching is soon forgotten.
4. The cur ran to meet his owner.
5. Philip earnestly protested against their doings.
B. L. N.

NO. 7.—DOUBLE ACROSTIC.
1. To involve in perplexity; 2. A sculptor's workshop; 3. A substance used for ornamentation; 4. An allurement; 5. A man's name; 6. A small pet animal; 7. Melted matter; 8. A shoemaker's tool.
The initials will name a great woman, and the finals will tell what country she was a native of.
RAINDROP.

NO. 8.—DIAMOND PUZZLE.
1. A vowel. 2. Ancient. 3. American coins. 4. A book containing a calendar. 5. The inhabitants of Denmark. 6. Copulent. 7. A consonant. H. S.

NO. 9.—LOGOGRIPH.
I am a word of five letters. Take away my first, and I am the name of what adorns the estate of many wealthy people. Take away my first and second, and I am the name of a place where all the world was once congregated. Take away my last, and I am the name of a beautiful mineral. Take away my two last, and I am the name of a fashionable place of resort. I am small in stature, but capable of doing a great deal of mischief.
B. H. J.

NO. 10.—ARITHMETICAL PUZZLE.
Take one-half of ten, multiply it by itself so that the remainder will be neither greater nor less than the number taken.
EPH. RAIM.

ANSWERS TO "GYMNASTICS" IN JOURNAL NO. 80.

No. 1.— 17 24 1 8 15
23 5 7 14 16
4 6 13 20 22
10 12 19 31 3
11 18 25 2 19

No. 2.—Dr. Livingstone, the discoverer.

No. 3.—
ForAM
I'm A
Agent
MagiC
EpicH

No. 4.—Light-house. Mad-a-gas-car.

Pepper-mint.

No. 5.—
AWARE
WAGER
AGILE
RELIC
ERECT

No. 6.—Tear, ear, tea.

No. 7.—Daniel De Foe, Washington Irving.

No. 8.—1. Era, are. 2. Ward, draw.

3. Not, ton. 4. Pets, step.

No. 9.—
M
BAR
BADGE
MADEIRA
BEING
TRY
A

No. 10.—Salt.

Somebody says a wife should be like a roast lamb—tender and nicely dressed. A bachelor adds, "but without any sauce."

A young lady was looking at a picture representing a pair of lovers in a boat, with a lover gently clasping the waist of his Dulcinea, when she innocently remarked, "How natural!"

SPECIAL NOTICES.

NEW SCHOOL BOOKS.

We invite the attention of teachers and educationalists to the following announcement of books recently issued by us. We will send sample copies of either or all of them if desired for examination with a view to introduction, on receipt of the appended price.

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OUR LETTER BOX.

J. M. V. F.—This correspondent wishes to know whether it is correct to say, "I feel badly." We answer that it is not a correct expression. It is only used by those who believe that the adverbial use of the adjective is entirely poetical and should not be allowed in prose.

"I feel indifferently," nor would he assert of a person afflicted with a discord in his organs of vision that "he looks cross-eyedly." In these and all similar cases he would use the adjective form. As a rule when the verb is or seems to be substituted for the verb used in such expressions the adverbial form of the adjective is incorrect. "The rose smells sweetly" is absurd, for the rose does not possess the necessary organs of smell with which to perform the act. When the maiden "smiles sweetly," she acts; when she simply "looks sweet" she seems to be sweet, although she may "look sweetly" at somebody. Dean Alford says: "There may be two uses of an adverb as qualifying a verb. One of these may have respect to the action indicated by the verb, describing its mode of performance; the other may have respect to the result of that action irrespective of its mode of performance. We may, if we will, designate these two uses respectively the subjective and the objective use." Then he considers the sentence, "Shall not the Judge of all the earth do right?" and shows that in these last words, do right, we may take right either as an adverb or as an adjective. But in this, "Thou hast done right, but we have done wickedly," he holds that from the parallelism right must be used adverbially. When the same thoughtful writer touches upon instances such as that which J. M. V. F. has offered, he says: "In all these 'looking sadly,' 'smelling sweetly,' 'feeling queerly,' we do not mean to qualify the mode of acting or being, but to describe the result produced by the act or state. To 'smell sweetly' is not meant to describe some sweet way of performing the act of smelling, but is meant to describe that the smell itself is sweet."

"The rose smells sweet" is in construction much the same as "the rose is sweet." "You look sad" is equivalent to "you seem to be sad." And so of the rest.

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GEORGE H. STOUT, Editor and Proprietor.

NEW YORK, AUGUST 17, 1873

POLITICAL EDUCATION.

We have in our own and other countries schools for almost every calling. Nearly every subject is taught, discussed or studied in some way, except politics. We use the word in its broadest and highest sense, as defined by Worcester—"The science or the art of government, or the administration of national or public affairs; that part of ethics which consists in the knowledge or the practice of conducting the various affairs of a state or nation." Now we put the question how many men and women have any correct or far-reaching ideas upon the subject of national, state, city or town government? How many children of the age of fifteen have read or studied the Constitution of the United States? How many foreigners, who are voters, can read or tell anything about the Declaration of Independence? Men and women have a general idea that the country is governed in some way, but by whom and how is as about as clear a conception to them as that there is a country called Siberia to one who has never seen a map or read a geography.

The genius of our American institutions is to the masses a dead letter. The liberty that cost blood and treasure to our forefathers is construed, by many illiterate emigrants upon our shores, to mean simply the right to do just as they please, without much regard to law or order. In other words, liberty to them means license to do evil or good, as best suits them. In proof of this assertion, look at all our large cities with their organized bands of robbers of public treasures, at our prison-houses, jails and gangs of idle and vicious roughts.

The questions agitating the educational world are chiefly concerned with how best these illiterate masses shall be taught reading, writing, spelling, etc., how reach them the most efficiently to make them educated and intelligent members of the great body politic. But added to these, should not some instruction be given them how they may become good and honorable citizens of a great and growing republic? The nation is developing so rapidly in a commercial as well as in other points of view, and the tide of immigration setting so fast upon our shores, that if some progress be not made toward a higher and purer development of our political status, the republic may break in two by its own weight.

Every child at the fireside and in the school-room should be inducted into the great principles underlying the national Government. Every foreigner landing upon American shores, should be taught that self-government and obedience to law and order are the bone and sinew of the nation, and that liberty is no synonym with riot and bloodshed. Every household and every college should be a nursery for the propagation of political science and art. Then politics will not be a subject unfit for good men's consideration and attention, or for woman's investigation. How many of the latter, found to be intelligent and well-read upon many subjects, can tell how the States are represented at Washington and how Congressional bodies differ from State legislative ones? How many voters know for whom and for what they are voting? How many of them are inspired with broad, far-seeing views and efforts for the general good, and the grand, noble and patriotic principles of men who have stood resplendent with the halo of their statesmanship before the nationalities of the world?

The subject of politics has become so unpopular and offensive, with a great many professional and educated men, and with honorable business men and merchants, that they feel like doing as Dr. Johnson did when receiving a scurrilous letter from some person, turn to an attendant and say, "Take the tongs, good John, take the tongs." It is a bad omen for America when good men say take the tongs; leaving the affairs of State to men unworthy or uneducated, and totally unfit to control the most vital interests of our noble republic.

When Horace Greeley was editor of the *Tribune* he charged all election frauds upon the Democrats. Now the *Tribune* discovers that Republicans are the repeaters and ballot-box stuffers.

A NOVEL COMPLIMENT TO THE TEACHER.

At the recent annual meeting of the State Superintendents' Association in Ohio, Mr. Stephenson, Superintendent of the Columbus schools, took the ground that teachers are the best persons to draft and amend school laws, and he exhorted the teachers to exert the influence that rightly belongs to them, in order to elect to the Legislature the men who will give earnest and continual attention to the educational problems of the day. This is the broadest recognition of the teacher's real position in civilized communities, as well as a timely hint to educators everywhere to perform all the duties of the citizen. The teacher's influence, not limited to the dull round of technical duties, extends insensibly to the family of his pupils and to the society of which he is a member. He has a duty to perform, for which he is personally responsible to the whole commonwealth as well as to his school, and the sooner this duty is generally understood, the better it will be for teacher and for taught. But the peculiar novelty of Mr. Stephenson's suggestion concerning the agency of teachers as legal codifiers, will attract attention.

There is a good deal of sense in the proposition. If, when the laws of a State are to be reduced to a simple and effective code, the aid of the best-read and most experienced lawyers is invoked to perform that task—if, when prison discipline is to be revised or reformed, the advice of wardens and inspectors is requested by the Executive or by the Legislature—if, when a financial measure is pending in Congress, the suggestions of the money-kings are thankfully received—why should not the teacher be paid the compliment of consultation when questions pertaining to our educational interests are under discussion by the law-making body? The suggestion offered by the far-sighted Ohio Superintendent is, therefore, manifestly a wise one. We hope it will be borne in mind in this State, when our legislators again essay to revise or to amend our school laws.

THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE TEACHERS' Association will meet at Philadelphia on the 20th inst., and continue in session three days. The NEW YORK SCHOOL JOURNAL will have a corps of reporters present, and we shall publish a good sketch of the proceedings in our next issue.

TEACHERS' EXCURSION TO PHILADELPHIA—SPECIAL NOTICE.—Arrangements have been made with the Pennsylvania Railroad Company to carry teachers wishing to attend meeting of the Pennsylvania State Teachers' Association, which meets in Philadelphia August 21, 22, 23 and 24.

Special rates of fare for teachers—New York to Philadelphia and return, \$4. Tickets good to return until September 5.

Parties entitled to these tickets will be furnished with the proper certificate by applying to the office of SCHOOL JOURNAL, 119 Nassau St., ROOM 2.

SAMUEL CATHARTS, G. E. F. AGT.
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THE COINS OF PONTIUS PILATE.

ROBERT MORRIS, LL. D., SECRETARY OF THE AMERICAN HOLY LAND EXPLORATION.

I think I am not speaking out of bounds to say that no branch of historical inquiry has received such scanty attention at the hands of American scholars, as that of Numismatics, or the science of coins. In Europe, the learned have long agreed to consider this as the most reliable, practical and attractive auxiliary to historical study. In England, not only have numismatists (properly so called) greatly increased in numbers within a few years, but, as Prof. Madden affirms, "a widely spread class of the literary public acknowledge that the subject possesses a claim to attention in some respects superior to that so willingly conceded to other topics of a similar but purely ethnical character." Yet in America, scarcely any of those gentlemen who make up the faculties of our colleges and universities seem to have given any thought in this direction. The society which I represent having formed a special department of Numismatics and distributed many thousands of specimens of the brass money of the Greek and Roman Empires, it devolves upon its members now to present, through the press, such developments as are making in coin-studies and to encourage a much larger degree of inquiry.

The title of the present paper, "The Coins of Pontius Pilate," is purposely taken to catch the reader's eye. How few Americans are aware that European Numismatists have so nearly completed their series of the money of the Old and New Testaments that in Madden's "Jewish Coinage" there are twenty-four coins accurately figured that were struck at Jerusalem by the Roman Procurators (or Governors), of whom Pontius Pilate was the fifth. This line of fifteen Procurators was thus made up:

1. Coponius, A. D. 6 to 10.
2. M. Ambivius, 10 " 13.
3. Annus Rufus, 13 " 14.
4. Valerius Gratus, 14 " 25.

5. Pontius Pilate,	25 " 35.
6. Marcellus,	35 " 37.
7. Marullus,	37 " 41.
8. Agrippa I.,	41 " 44.
9. Cuspius Fadus,	44 " 49.
10. Ventidius Cumanus,	49 " 52.
11. Claudius Felix,	52 " 60.
12. Porcius Festus,	60 " 62.
13. Annus,	62 three months.
14. Albinus,	63 " 65.
15. Gessius Florus,	65 " 69.

Florus was the last of the Imperial Procurators and the very worst of them. Tacitus suggests (*His. V. 10*) that the tyranny of Florus was the great cause of the revolt of the Jews which ended in the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus. His language is "derasit patientia Judeas usque ad Gesium Florum."

I remarked that the English and Continental Numismatists had already up to 1864, discovered and accurately figured 24 coins, both obverse and reverse, struck at Jerusalem from A. D. 7 to A. D. 69, by authority of the Roman Procurators. Not having copies of these engravings to present to the *Classics* as I would wish to do, I will make such verbal descriptions as I can.

They range in size from 3 to 4 tenths of an inch in diameter; are of brass (more properly bronze) and bear the representative of a plant, the name of the reigning Emperor and the year of his reign in Greek characters.

The plant. On 11 of these 24 coins are a palm-tree or palm-branch, a common coin-type of Palestine from Simon Maccabeus B. C. 142 to Simon Bar-Chobab A. D. 135. On this tree hang, in some impressions, bunches of dates and this is the emblem (the fruitful palm) which the American Holy Land Exploration has adopted on its badge.

Ears of Wheat. On 7 of these 24 coins, are seen ears of wheat (scripturally "corn"), usually one upon a coin, sometimes three.

Cornucopia. One or more "Horns of Plenty" embellish several of these Jerusalem coins. Laurel wreaths are seen on some; and on one an altar. One bears a threefold flower growing from one stem, considered by some examiners to be a lily, but by others a narcissus. A vine leaf graces several of the coins; one bears a cup (diadema) with a lid, supposed by a distinguished writer upon coins to refer to the wine cups presented by Julia and her husband Augustus to the Temple at Jerusalem. A lituus appears on three, a simpulum on two, a poppy-head on one, and one has two shields with two lances placed crosswise, in a very artistic manner.

This display of emblems will be highly suggestive to the thoughtful reader. Compared with the barren and unmeaning symbolism on American and English (and nearly all other) coinage, these beautiful and appropriate types of fertility mark a striking contrast. Why cannot the United States mint improve upon the money-pictures of nineteen centuries by introducing upon its gold, silver, bronze and nickel coinage the objects that enrich our land in agriculture, mining, fisheries, manufactures, etc., etc.?

But the reader will inquire what degree of art is displayed on the faces of these coins? I reply, some of them exhibit great ingenuity. Some of the palms, the laurel wreaths, the triple wheat-heads, the lilies, etc., are scarcely equalled in boldness of design by the best specimens of foreign mintage. While there is a certain degree of archaism which gives the character, the general impression they would make upon the eye is agreeable, and they are easily remembered. Compare a handful of these Jerusalem coins with a handful of the copper coinage of the present day, and this fact stands out very prominently.

Of the coinage of Pontius Pilate himself we have thus far only five specimens; but in a package of 4,900 copper coins now on their way from the Holy Land to New York, and all collected very near Jerusalem, there may be others attributable to this period A. D. 25 to 35. The five referred to are thus described:

No. 1. Obverse, a simpulum with the words in old Greek characters, "Tiberius Caesar" and the date (L. IS.) "year 16," of Tiberian period, equivalent to A. D. 29. Reverse, three ears of corn bound together and the words "Julia Caesar."

No. 2. Almost exactly similar.

No. 3. Obverse, a lituus with the same legend as No. 1. Reverse, the date "year 16" written within a wreath.

No. 4. Similar to No. 3 on the obverse, but the reverse has "year 17" (L. IZ.) written within a wreath.

No. 5. The same as in No. 4 except "the year 18" (L. IH.).

In closing this brief article, let me suggest that one strong inducement to the study of numismatics is the field of discovery it presents to all who pursue it. The earth is the great banking-house of the East, even to the present day, and there is never a washing rain in Palestine that does not throw out treasures of historical learning if only we were sufficiently organized to gather them up. Every devotee of ancient knowledge is invited to join our society free of charge. Address the secretary at La Grange, Kentucky.—*Jews Classics.*

We have received from Sheldon & Co. advanced sheets of new railroad and reference maps to be added to the new edition of Colton's Common School Geography. The publishers promise that the new edition will be the most complete text-book of its class ever offered to the American public. To justify this promise will be no very praiseworthy achievement, but any improvement upon the publications of the past will be welcome.

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HOW I TAUGHT A YOUNGSTER TO WRITE VERSE.

BY TOM HOOD.

CHAPTER VII.

In order to make our next subject plain and intelligible, I will give you a comparison that will serve as a definition. Poetry is to the ear what painting is to the eye. Prose may be said to be like drawing; and if we want to be very particular, we can compare colloquial prose to mere outline, while the elevated prose of literature is the shaded drawing.

All we want for our present purpose is that poetry—and therefore in its humble way versifying—is to the ear what painting is to the eye. Its language is, indeed, often defined as picturesque; and therefore in writing verse we should endeavor to make every line present a picture to the mind's eye. For that purpose we must get out our color-box. Our color-box contains not cakes or tubes of paint, but adjectives or epithets. These individualize and endow with life the substantives which are, so to speak, mere outlines. "Horse," "field," "man" or "flower" calls up but a general idea. Add an epithet to each, and the particular image stands before you. "A coal-black horse," "a golden field," "a toll-wood man," "a purple flower," are individualities that present themselves vividly as portraits to the imagination.

We must take care, however, that the epithets are such as to give an additional meaning to the substantive. "A four-footed horse" calls up no image, nor does "an earthen field" or "a two-armed man," or "a blooming flower."

Again, to return to our comparison of poetry with painting, we must take care to keep the different parts of our word-picture in their proper relations. If you look at a painting you will see the strongest and purest colors belong to the important portions in the foreground; as the objects recede and become subordinate, their hues are toned down with neutral tints. In our word-picture, therefore, we must not tack an epithet to every word. The leading idea

must be given with effect by the use of fitting epithets, and the minor ideas must be kept in the background.

The ordinary and perhaps primal use of the epithet is to give life and distinctness to the picture which we essay to conjure up by our verse. But, as we saw in our last discussion, sometimes an epithet takes the place of a relative or explanatory sentence. In that case it is something more than mere coloring. Here is an instance:

Not so when swift Camilla scans the plain,
Flies o'er the unobscuring corn, and skims along the main.

We might (by doing away with the extra foot of the Alexandrine) make this a passable deca syllabic couplet thus:

Not so when swift Camilla scans the plain,
Flies o'er the corn, and skims along the main.

But see what an effect we have lost by the omission of "unobscuring"! That epithet, observe, ought strictly to be attached to Camilla thus—"She flies o'er the corn without bending it."

In some cases the epithet, though applied to one word, belongs to another, even more decidedly than in this last instance. This is from Spenser's "Faerie Queen":

Like to an eagle in his kingly pride
Hearing through his wings the cry of the air
To weather his broad sails, by chance hath spied
A goddess which hath seized for her share
Upon some forest bird, for prey he prepare,
With dreadful force he flies at her bylive,
That with his force, which none endure dare,
Her from the quarry he away doth drive,
And from her gripping pounce the greedy prey doth rive.

The term "greedy" cannot apply to the prey which is dead, but it means that the prey makes the eagle and hawk greedy.

To the tendency—or rather the necessity—for individualizing instead of generalizing in the word-painting of verse, is to be traced the frequent use in verse of the embodiment of abstract ideas. Virtue becomes "a white-robed vestal." Fear is "pale-faced Fear."

Youth we wear a crown of roses, and morning becomes "he" "rosy-fingered Aurora." These impersonations come before us distinctly—the abstract ideas present no image.

On the same grounds the words that signify species are usually preferred in verse to those which designate genus alone; or, at any rate, when the words "birds," "flowers," etc., are used, you generally find a few lines which enumerate the kinds of "birds" or "flowers," as for example:

Purple all the ground with vernal flowers,
Bring the rather primrose that forgotten dies,
The tufted crocus, and pale jessamine, etc.

The method by which life and individuality are given to inanimate objects by attributing to them actions that imply sentience is merely another form of impersonation. To speak of "a laughing brook," "a smiling landscape," "a frowning sky," is to vest the brook, the mountain and the sky with a human form, as it were, because you cannot conceive to yourself the laugh, the smile or the frown without picturing to yourself human features.

You will observe that the best poets seldom fail to use specific terms rather than generic ones, in order to give reality to their fancies. In "Lady Clara Vere de Vere," by the poet Laureate, there is no description of the proud lady's mansion, and for all the purpose of the poem (the rebuke of her hard-hearted coquetry) there is none needed. But simply in a couple of lines the poet conjures up before us with a magician's wand the ancestral dwelling of the Vere de Veres:

You sought to prove how I could love,
And my disdain is my reply.
The lion on your old stone gate
Is not more cold to you than I.

Lady Clara Vere de Vere,
You put strange fancies in my head,
Not thirty year branching lines have flown,
Since I belied young Laureate dead.

Cannot you see the massive old gate with the quaint lions—the avenue of ancient lines (one can almost smell them) beyond it, with a peep of the old hall at the end of the vista?

While we are on the subject of impersonation as giving vividness and reality to verse, I may as well draw your attention briefly to an extension and development of the method, which consists in couching your verses in the first person, and so making the reader impersonate—this is in a sort of way dramatic. There is an admirable instance of this effect in a poem by Bret Harte, the latest but one of the most original of the geniuses America has produced. The poem is written in the first person, and the speaker is supposed to be a miner who has come down from the diggings to look for his friend and chum, Jim, who had left the mines on account of ill-health. He meets with a man with whom he takes a drink after the American fashion. He has just got his glass in his hand when the stranger startles him with sad news. He cries:

What's that you say?
Dead?
That little cuss?
What makes you star?
You ever that?
Can't a man drop
's glass in ver shop
But you must rar!
It wouldn't take
Derned much to break
You and your bar!

The neat and artistic way in which we are made to infer that the blow he feels on learning his friend's death so affects him that the glass falls from his hand, is admirable.

I am afraid, my boy, we must only discuss these artistic methods at an admiring distance. If we could emulate them we should be something more than versifiers, and you at any rate have not as yet written a single line. However, by pointing these things out to you, I am at least able to increase your enjoyment in reading poetry by enabling you to appreciate the art which adorns it.

[TO BE CONTINUED.]

News from the Schools.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL No. 28.—The Male, Female and Primary Departments will reopen for the admission of scholars on Monday, September 2. Parents are requested to send their children promptly on the day of opening, as the classes will be immediately formed for the January promotions.

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BROOKLYN.—James Cruikshanks has resigned the position of Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools.

The Board of Education have resolved to offer a premium to architects for the best plan for a school building.

GENERAL INFORMATION.

—What constitutes security in any room, whether sewn by a sewing-machine or by hand? The seam must be a trifle more elastic than the material sewn, and free from dropped stitches. Can any machine make such a seam better than the "Wilcox & Gibbs"? No. The lock stitch seam is non-elastic, and subject to dropped stitches.

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BREXAN—On Wednesday, the 14th inst., after a short and severe illness, Ophele Brexan, wife of Timothy Brexan, and eldest daughter of Daniel P. and Elizabeth Whitford, in the 26th year of her age. The relatives and friends of the family are respectfully invited to attend the funeral on Sunday afternoon, the 15th inst., at 2 o'clock P. M., from No. 127 White street.

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THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

WHAT IT HAS DONE—WHAT IT IS DOING—WHAT IT MAY DO.

[By A. E. Schepmoer of Kingston, read before the New York State Teachers' Association, at its session at Saratoga Springs.]

The public school is one of the most potent institutions in the world. It has shown its power in every country in which it has been established; and where the public school has not been established, or where it has been indifferently supported, civil and religious institutions have not acquired that power and permanency that they have in those countries and places where it has been established and well supported. I am aware that some will say that I am attaching too much importance to this institution, and that I lose sight of one thing which is to be the great civilizing power of the world; and these persons will tell me that the church and its institutions stand pre-eminent above all other mental and moral educating powers of the world. But I ask such to stop a while and consider, and tell me how we are to develop the civilizing power of these institutions without popular education. Is it not the province of the public school to go forward and break up the fallow ground of the human intellect, and prepare it for the seed of gospel truth? I may be permitted to say, at least, that they must go hand in hand in the work of instruction and civilization. To prove this, let us refer to those who have gone to heathen nations to civilize and christianize them. Have they not, in the places where they have gone to preach the gospel, planted the public school? Have they not seen the necessity for mental culture as well as spiritual culture? And have not these heathen nations themselves, when the first rays of moral light have shone into their minds, at that very time exhibited a thirst for mental culture? And have not the missionaries seen the necessity for slaking this thirst? I repeat, then, that the public school is one of the most powerful institutions in the world. I am aware, too, that this is not a new idea. The Pilgrim Fathers, when they "moored their bark on a wild New England shore," seemed to well understand this; for they sought to establish the means for popular education among the first settlers of this country. They brought with them the germ of popular education, as well as the germ of republican institutions and religious liberty. I have often thought that they seemed to be a band of inspired heroes, sent out by the great Ruler of the Universe, to plant on this western continent a galaxy of bright and glorious institutions that should be the admiration of the nations of the earth, and prominent in this galaxy should stand out the public school. It seems to me that they considered this scarcely less important than the establishment of the church itself. Some may say that I am enthusiastic on this subject. Be it so; I feel better, when I am engaged in a good cause, to be fired up by a little enthusiasm. I like to feel ardent on my subject. It seems to make the wheels of thought run easier.

But let me confine myself more directly to the first part of my subject, viz.: What the Public School has done. First, let us look at our own country, and reflect for a short time. Let us go in our thoughts to Plymouth Rock, and watch the movement of that wave of popular education as it gradually moved toward the west and southwest. I know that for many years its progress was slow, but it was none the less sure on that account. While it moved so slowly, it was like the giant oak that strikes its roots down deep in the soil, and grows more and more firm, and able to withstand the fierce blasts that may sweep over it. So was it with the germ of popular education, nurtured by the spirit of the Puritans; it grew and gradually spread out its branches, and now we see its leaves drop in all parts of our fair land.

The general dissemination of knowledge has led to the uprooting of many forms of error and superstition. We very seldom hear now of such delusions as the Salem witchcraft; and the various forms of religious persecution which, in the early settlement of the colonies, caused much bitterness, and contradicted the spirit of true Christianity, are vanishing before the march of intelligence as the darkness vanishes before the rising of the sun.

Popular education has firmly established the principles of republican institutions in the hearts and minds of the people of this nation; and I believe that we owe, in a great measure, to this, the existence of our undivided government to-day. The spirit that sought the dismemberment of this nation did not have its birth in that part of our country where the public school is best supported; but the spirit that bravely opposed disunion, as well as first resisted the oppressions of a proud and haughty monarch who sought to suppress the rising spirit of liberty in this land, had its birth in that part where popular education was fostered and encouraged. Yes, more, the first blood that watered the tree of liberty in the eighteenth century, as well as that which was so freely poured out for its defence and protection in the nineteenth, was from that part of the land where popular education was first encouraged.

The general diffusion of knowledge has had much to do in inculcating the principles of the universal brotherhood of man. People do not look upon different nationalities and races now with that spirit of superiority on the one hand, and of inferiority on the other, that they once did. Old national and local prejudices are dying out, and the disposition to elevate our fellow men seems now to characterize the people

of all nations more than formerly. Not in our own country alone have these changes taken place, but in other parts of the world have we seen mighty changes in this direction. Look at the progress of ideas in Europe, Asia and Africa for the last quarter of a century. See what has been done in the way of establishing the means for promoting popular education in all quarters of the globe. Wherever the missionary has gone to carry the glad tidings of the New Testament, he has established the school, and said to all who could be induced to avail themselves of its advantages, to come and partake freely. Wherever commerce has established itself in foreign countries, where the productions of the soil, or mineral wealth has invited the fortune seeker to settle, the school for the masses has been found a necessity, and has been found a powerful auxiliary for civilizing the natives. It has inspired the mind of the swarthy son of Africa with the spirit of improvement, and to-day, on the coast of that hitherto so unfortunate country, is established a republic like our own, with its institutions, civil, religious and educational; and poor doomed Africa, in part through the benign influence of popular instruction, has been led to a great extent to give up the kidnapping of one tribe by another for the purpose of subjecting them to slavery.

But let us return to our own land, and see what the public school has done for us. It has promoted the general diffusion of intelligence among the people, and with it the printing press is sending forth its millions of pages of reading matter, and in almost every house and cabin in our land the newspaper makes its daily or weekly visits. Superstition and bigotry have greatly diminished, and men do not now oppress their fellow-men to the extent they formerly did. I believe that it was the secret but potent influence of the public school that has made this change, and has rooted out that plague spot of our nation, and which was seeking to entrench itself still more deeply into our political system, and which our country has so recently thrown off by that mighty effort which nearly cost it its life. It is noteworthy that the advocates of that inhuman institution, if they were not directly opposed to the general establishment of public schools, they, at least, did very little to endow them in the States where slavery existed.

The public school has had great influence in bringing to light examples of statesmanship. What country can boast of as many men who have come up from the humble walks of life and occupied positions of trust and honor as the United States? The little log school-house in our sparse settlements has so often been the scene of the struggles of genius under difficulties in his search for knowledge; and, though this rude structure could afford but limited advantages, yet it was the place where those minds had their start, and if the higher institution was called on to help on struggling genius, yet it got its first impulse in the rude district school house; and many a poor farm boy has risen to position where he has influenced the Senate Chamber or Legislative Hall; yes, and a "rail-splitter" has occupied the highest seat that the American people can give to any of their citizens. And let me ask, now that the smoke of political strife, in his case, at least, has very much cleared away, has any one who has every occupied that position graced it more than did that "forest boy?"

I will not pursue this any farther. Let us now look for a short time at what the public school is doing. If time would permit, here we have a large field in which to glean. See how this institution is rising up all over the land, and as it spreads and grows, how mental and moral light spreads. See how much nearer our farms look; how much more our soil produces proportionally. Yes, everything is promoted through the influence of books. In our public school libraries are works in science, art, agriculture and nearly all subjects that interest or improve the minds of the people; and the pursuit of these is leading to improving and beautifying our houses and lands, and rendering them more comfortable.

The influence of the public school is not confined to our own country. The tidal wave of popular education is gradually spreading eastward and westward, and northward and southward. It is breaking against the barrier walls of China, and that exclusive empire is opening her gates to invite our American civilization. Did she not, a few years ago, employ one of our citizens, with a full corps of associates, to go forth and gather up what they could of our institutions, and means for the dissemination of knowledge, and bring them back for the purpose of engraving them in her own stock? Is not Japan sending a number of her children to our country to be educated and prepared for the work of spreading popular knowledge among her own people? Yes, more than this, according to information I have, the authorities of that country have invited one of our own fellow-laborers to go and organize a system of popular education for that island empire. Teachers of New York, do you not feel a little sensation of pride at this?

We may also refer to the different countries of Europe, many of which are just throwing off those chains of error and superstition which have for ages held mind and body in bondage. Russia has emancipated her serfs; Italy is struggling successfully to emerge from her thralldom, and other nations are making efforts to improve their political and educational systems. Just at this time the people of England are working to establish a practical system of popular education. Can

any one say truly that the American Public School has had nothing to do with all this?

Another grand work that our public school is doing, is improving our systems of instruction. Never has there been a time when so much has been done for this, as at the present. Look at the army of public school teachers all over this land, and consider the study and labor they are doing to bring out the best means for developing mind. Many of the most powerful minds in the world are devoted to this; and, though we may be overrun by book agents and book makers, yet even these are evidences that minds are earnestly devoted to devising the best methods of mental development. I hesitate not to say that the larger part of this work is done by our public school teachers, or those connected with the interests of these schools. Some may be inclined to take issue with me here, but I ask such to examine for themselves, and see what amount of money is paid out of the public treasury for the support of normal schools, teachers' institutes, and for teachers' classes in academies. Seminaries and colleges are sustained by private enterprise, and they are, as a rule, not so well provided with the means for the outlay, that they can afford to spend much for this object, and then, too, self-interest leads their owners to make these institutions popular, so as to make them financially successful, rather than to make them thorough. In the public school this temptation is removed, and though individual teachers in them may seek popularity rather than thoroughness, yet the great majority of the best teachers try to do thorough work and produce sound mental development.

The Sunday school is also receiving much benefit from this work of improving the methods of instruction. Sunday school teachers' institutes are now almost as common as day school teachers' institutes. It is now becoming quite common to see the blackboard in our Sunday schools. The various means employed in the work of teaching in the day school, have been found practicable and profitable in the Sunday school. Indeed, our Sunday school work is now being rapidly reduced to the "Object teaching" standard.

What may the public school do? To undertake to answer this question may seem presumptuous; for in these times, when such mighty revolutions take place, it is not easy to foresee what may be accomplished in a comparatively short time. When we look back and see what improvements have been made in the systems of instruction, and think what an army of laborers are at work and spending their energies in improving these systems, who can tell what may be done during the next quarter of a century? Who can estimate the influence that our American public school may exert in diffusing the principles of republican institutions among the nations of the world? How many of the children of the Old World have come to this country and imbibed the spirit of our institutions, and returned to the Fatherland and aided in spreading abroad these principles, or by correspondence with their friends have done the same thing? There is something in the very nature of our public school that is diffusive, and the bringing together in our schools the different classes of our population seems to inspire a kind of respect for that system of government which can organize and sustain such institutions as we enjoy.

It may not be out of place here to speak of what is needed to make our public school as useful as it should be, and to exert the influence that it may exert throughout the world. It still needs to be improved. We need a more rigid system of supervision, and a higher standard of qualifications for teachers. In this I do not mean that new branches shall be added to those already prescribed for our teachers, but a greater proficiency in these branches, and a laudable ambition on the part of those who assume the teacher's office to properly fit themselves for the work of instruction. Our teachers should be inspired with a spirit of professional pride that will lead them to reach after the highest attainments possible; and the fact that other nations are trying to adopt our system of popular education should stimulate us to this laudable ambition. We should feel a national and professional pride in this that will lead us to study so to improve all that pertains to our educational facilities that they will be as nearly perfect as any human institutions can be made. When this point is reached, who can tell how widely scattered the influence of our institutions may become? Generations yet unborn may rise up and bless the present and past generations for devising and working out a system of popular instruction that has done so much, and I believe will yet do much more to benefit the world of mankind.

Perhaps some will say that I attach so much importance to the public school that I overlook the higher institutions of learning. I disclaim this, and by way of offset ask what would these higher institutions do if it were not for the public school to furnish them with freshmen to replenish their classes? How many of their students have been led on to seek a course of higher attainment which the seminary and college afford by the instruction they have received in the public school? How soon would their graduating classes dwindle to an insignificant number, were the public school to stop furnishing these supplies? For their own prosperity these higher institutions should do all in their power to diffuse among the people a spirit of improvement in our public schools. The present system of primary instruction is better calculated to make the future prog-

ress of students in our seminaries and colleges better scholars. This is another reason why these institutions should do all they can to encourage the public schools.

Now, teachers of the Empire State, if what I have said is true, is it not a source of gratification to us to know that we belong to this great army of laborers? And does it not afford us pleasure to know that we are working at a system which has done so much, is doing so much, and may yet work out such grand results for our fellow-men? Our children and our children's children will reap the benefit of what we are doing. We are laboring in the wake of a company of noble souls, who have gone before us. We can recall the names of such men as Town, and Mann, and Holbrook, and Page, and Coburn, and Rice, and McElligott, and a host of others—men who have left the impress of their spirit upon our school system, and who have gone from their labor to their reward, and have left the work to our hands. Let us prove ourselves worthy successors of such noble, heroic spirits, and, though we may not seem to be appreciated in this world, yet when we have left this stage of action, it may be our privilege to look down from a higher position in the spirit world, and see the results of our labors. Will it not add to our enjoyment there, to see our fellow men here, and perhaps our own kindred, enjoying blessings which we, under God, have been instrumental in conferring on them?

Let us, then, toil on, not so careful about getting a great name for what we do, but to leave behind us "foot-prints on the sands of time," that will serve as beacon lights to guide the youthful mind to symmetrical development and generous culture.

WHOM GREAT MEN MARRY.

Byron married Miss Millbank to get money to pay his debts. It turned out a bad shift.

Robert Burns married a farm girl, with whom he fell in love while they worked together in the plow-field. He was irregular in his life, and committed the most serious mistakes in conducting his domestic affairs.

Milton married the daughter of a country squire, but lived with her but a short time. He was an austere, exacting literary recluse, while she was a rosy, romping country lass that could not endure the restraint imposed upon her; so they separated. Subsequently, however, she returned and they lived tolerably happy.

Queen Victoria and Prince Albert were cousins, and about the only example in the long line of English monarchs wherein the marital vows were sacredly observed and sincere affection existed.

Shakespeare loved and wedded a farmer's daughter. She was faithful to her vows, but we could hardly say the same of the great bard himself. Like most of the great poets he showed too little discrimination in bestowing his affections on the other sex.

Washington married a woman with two children. It is enough to say that she was worthy of him, and they lived as married folks should—in perfect harmony.

John Adams married the daughter of a Presbyterian clergyman. Her father objected on account of John's being a lawyer—he had a bad opinion of the morals of the profession.

John Howard, the great philanthropist, married his nurse. She was altogether beneath him in social life and intellectual capacity, and besides this, was fifty-two years old, while he was but twenty-five. He would not take "No" for an answer, and they were married and lived happily together until she died, which occurred two years afterward.

Peter the Great, of Russia, married a peasant girl. She made an excellent wife and a sagacious empress.

Humboldt married a poor girl because he loved her. Of course they were happy.

It is not generally known that Andrew Jackson married a lady whose husband was still living. She was an uneducated but amiable woman, and was most devotedly attached to the old warrior and statesman.

John C. Calhoun married his cousin, and their children, fortunately, were neither diseased nor idiotic, but they do not evince the talent of the great "State Rights" advocate.

Edward Lytton Bulwer, the English statesman and novelist, married a girl much his inferior in position, and got a shrew for a wife. She is now insane.

THE CALCULATING BOY.

Most sharp lads plume themselves upon their facility in mental arithmetic, and laugh at the scratch head who grumbles, "The rule of three, it puzzles me." But have you heard of that almost infantile prodigy—Zerah Colburn? How he astonished the people when, although under eight years of age, he was publicly exhibited in London as "The Calculating Boy." Of poorest parentage, Zerah had not received the common rudiments of education, but could yet solve the most obscure problems in ciphering. Seated on the platform of the Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly, he invited the audience to test his wondrous powers by putting what questions they pleased, which he promptly answered without help of slate and pencil, or "out of his own head" as the phrase is. Young Colburn's intuitive knowledge of figures was such that it seemed mere child's play for him to determine, at once, the exact number of minutes or seconds in any given period of years, however many. With remarkable despatch he also discovered the square or cube root of very high numbers. Being asked

to raise the number 8 up to the sixteenth power, he twiddled his fingers, and then rightly named the last result, viz., 281,474, 976,710,656. On another occasion he was asked the square root of 106,929, and even before the number could be written down he replied 327. In numbers consisting of two figures, he would raise some of them to one-sixth, seventh and eight power. This extraordinary Calculating Boy could also find out a prime number, or a number incapable of division by any other, by a method peculiar to himself, and unknown to mathematicians.

An amusing anecdote is related of Zerah Colburn. We know how some self-wise men—though "mere children of a larger growth"—deem it rare sport to trap clever youngsters with their nonsensical catch-questions. Of course Zerah was occasionally thus "bested." At his levee one day he was asked, "Knowing the distance, pray can you tell me how many cows' tails it would take to reach from our earth to the moon?" Nothing daunted, the boy archly replied, "Yes, sir, one—if it were long enough!" The audience applauded Zerah's wit, and laughed at his would-be confounder.

On attaining to manhood, Zerah Colburn came to America and became a minister of the Wesleyan Methodist persuasion, in Massachusetts.

In conclusion, it is pleasant to record that he who excited the world's wonder as the Calculating Boy, became as a man revered for his unaffected piety and zealous devotion to his sacred calling.

Crumbs for the Curious.

It is an error to imagine that women talk more than men. They're listened to more—that's all.

The most ancient manuscripts are written without accents, stops, or separation between the words; nor was it until after the ninth century that copyists began to leave spaces between the words.

In olden times, June was held to be the most propitious month for marriage.

An English law compels a married woman, if she has money or the means of making it, and her lord has none, to support him, be he ever so worthless, that the expense of his keeping may not come upon the parish.

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10. Dyspepsia, Bilious Stomach.	25
11. Suppressed, or Painful Periods.	25
12. Whites, too Profuse Periods.	25
13. Croup, Cough, Difficult Breathing.	25
14. Rheumatism, Rheumatic Pains.	25
15. Fever and Ague, Chills, Fever, Ague.	25
16. Piles, blind or bleeding.	25
17. Ophthalmia, Eye Inflammation.	25
18. Catarrh, acute or chronic, Influenza.	25
19. Whooping-Cough, violent coughs.	25
20. Asthma, oppressed breathing.	25
21. Ear Discharge, Stiffness of Hearing.	25
22. Scrofula, enlarged glands, Swellings.	25
23. General Debility, Physical Weakness.	25
24. Dropsy and scanty Secretions.	25
25. Sea-Sickness, sickness from riding.	25
26. Kidney-Disease, Gravel.	25
27. Nervous Debility, Seminal Emissions, involuntary Discharges.	1.00
Five Boxes, with one \$3.00 of Powder, very necessary in serious cases.	5.00
28. Sore Throat, Canker, Weakness.	25
29. Urinary Weakness, wetting bed.	25
30. Painful Periods, with Spasms.	25
31. Sufferings at change of life.	25
32. Epilepsy, Spasms, St. Vitus' Dance.	1.00
33. Diphtheria, ulcerated sore throat.	25

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INTERESTING FACTS ABOUT CLOCKS.

The invention of clocks is claimed for many different people and eras, from the Chinese, 2,000 years before Christ, down to the Germany of eight centuries ago. One of the earliest allusions to them occurs in a French poem of 1305:

"And then he made his clock strike
In his halls and in his chambers,
Which wheels very subtly contrived
With a continuing movement."

Their first general use was in monasteries during the eleventh century. Before their introduction the ascetics sat up to watch the stars, that he might wake the monks at the hours of prayer. The common people attributed their origin to the devil, and had anybody outside the religious orders incurred the odium of first introducing them he would doubtless have been put to death as a sorcerer. Dante, writing in 1300, mentions the striking of one, and likens to its movements the "sweet accord and harmony" of a circling dance of rejoicing spirits in Paradise. Chaucer (1388) refers to "a clock or any abbey horloge." And Froissart, of the same era, after describing minutely the mechanism of the clock, adds:

"Therefore I hold him very valiant and wise
Who first found the use of it:
That by his sense did begin and make
A thing so noble and of such great profit."

For many centuries public clocks upon churches and market-houses usually had an automaton which stepped out of the face to strike the hour, and then disappeared. The Strasbourg Cathedral contained the great wonder of the Middle Ages. It was a combination of an astronomical and a terrestrial clock, with a perpetual almanac, and had moving figures of a golden clock, children, men, angels and the Virgin Mary:

"And we saw St. Peter clasp his hands,
And the clock crew hourly to all the lands;
And the twelve Apostles come and go,
And the solemn Christ pass daily and slow,
As the crowd beneath in silence praying,
Be it that cold mechanic blessing."

We read in Hypertion of a Coblentz clock in the form of a gigantic human head, whose jaws open and smile together at each striking, as if to cry to the brazen head of Friar Bacon, "Time is, Time is past." The East India Company once presented to the Emperor of China two clocks in the form of diamonds, the golden cases studded with diamonds, rubies and pearls. Upon each sat a lady with a bird upon her finger. By a secret motion its wings fluttered, and the chariot moved in any direction, in seeming obedience to an automaton boy pushing it from behind. Horace Walpole owned an exquisite little clock, presented to Anne Boleyn by Henry VIII. After Walpole's death, Queen Victoria bought it at auction for £110, and it still runs at Windsor Castle. A cathedral clock in Somersetshire, set up in 1335, kept time for 500 years before the works were out. In the time of William III., a sentinel of the palace was condemned to death for sleeping on duty. The soldier insisted that at midnight—the hour of his alleged dereliction—he heard the enormous clock of St. Paul's Cathedral (25 miles distant, as the bird flies) strike thirteen. Investigation proving that it did strike thirteen on that night, the king pardoned him.

Droz, a mechanic of Geneva, produced an instrument which excelled all others in ingenuity. On it were seated a negro, a shepherd, and a dog. When the clock struck, the shepherd played six times on his flute, and the dog approached and fawned upon him. This wonderful machine was exhibited to the King of Spain, who was greatly delighted with it.

"The gentleness of my dog," said Droz, "is his least merit. If your Majesty touch one of the apples which you see in the shepherd's basket, you will admire the animal's fidelity."

The king took an apple, and the dog flew at his hand, barking so loud that the king's dog, which was in the room, began to bark also. At this the courtiers, not doubting that it was an affair of witchcraft, hastily left the room, crossing themselves as they departed. Having desired the Minister of Marine (the only one who ventured to remain) to ask the negro what o'clock it was, the Minister did so, but obtained no reply. Droz then observed that the negro had not yet learned Spanish, upon which the question was repeated in French, when the black immediately answered him. At this new prodigy the firmness of the Minister also forsook him, and he retreated precipitately, declaring that it must be the work of a supernatural being.

To others, clocks have been good for instruction, for admonition, and for reproof. All literature is full of them. A story is preserved of a shopkeeper who recommended one as made by "Thomas Fudgit." That was his translation of the whole-some old warning, *tempus fugit*, painted on the dial.

The following atrocity bears the ever-welcome label, "Thomas Hood, his mark."
"A mechanic his labor will often discard,
If the rate of his pay be disliking;
But a clock—and its one is uncommonly hard—
Will continue to work, though it strikes!"

In "The Belfry at Bruges," Longfellow catches his favorite echo—that of the medieval ages:
"Then most musical and solemn, bringing back the
olden times,
With their strange, unearthly music, rang the mel-
ancholy chiming."

The clock at the English Parliament House is the largest one in the world. The four dials of this clock are twenty-two feet in diameter. Every half minute the point of the minute hand moves nearly seven inches. The clock will go eight and a half days, but it only strikes for seven and a half, thus indicating any neglect in winding up. The mere winding up of the striking mechanism takes two hours. The pendulum is fifteen feet long; the wheels

are of cast-iron; the hour bell is eight feet high, and nine feet in diameter, weighing nearly fifteen tons, and the hammer alone weighs more than four hundred pounds. This clock strikes the quarter hours, and by its strokes the short-hand reporters in the parliament chambers regulate their labor. At every stroke a new reporter takes the place of the old one, while the first retires to write out the notes he has taken during the previous fifteen minutes.

The new clock for the court-house in Macon, Georgia, will soon arrive in that city. With one exception, it is the largest clock in the United States, that exception being the one in the City Hall in New York, and is the third largest in the world. It will cost one thousand dollars.

Chimes originated with the Dutch. There is a poetic saying that a child, born while they are sounding, will have power to see spirits. The chimes of old Trinity moved Edmund Keen to tears; and thousands of New Yorkers gather at midnight on the 31st of every December, to hear them "Ring out the old and ring in the new."

THE FRENCH SCHOOL TEACHERS' EXAMINATIONS.—Nobody is allowed to teach in France without a government certificate, and this is only given after examination; and in the first examination of a woman she must prove her knowledge of domestic economy and of shir-making. This is for the very lowest schools.

The second examination requires a thorough and comprehensive knowledge of the French history and literature. This gives a diploma. The third certificate implies a knowledge of the rules of art, the philosophy of history and the principles of common law. Here most of our public school teachers would break down.

These examinations are held all over France, in places which correspond to our cranny seats, and are conducted in part by professors of the Polytechnic School and the College of France.

One result of these examinations has been the preparation of far better text-books than we have in America, where we are so commonly victims of the bookmakers. Another result is that lectures of the highest order are being delivered every year in Paris to females upon fine arts, domestic economy, natural history, and among the lecturers are some of the highest names in France. Our system is far behind theirs.

The twelfth annual meeting of the Minnesota State Teachers' Association will be held at Minneapolis, August 28, 29 and 30.

The Iowa Teachers' Association will meet in Davenport on the 27th, 28th and 29th of August next.

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RESOURCES.

Bonds and Mortgages	\$2,184,500 00
Stock Investments	6,504,530 00
Amount loaned on Public Bonds	196,643 50
Real Estate cost	\$32,631 35
Market value	\$75,000 00
Standing on books	\$54,631 25
Cash	457,573 79
Accrued Interest and Premium	403,330 12
on Stock	\$9,683,744 34

LIABILITIES.

Amount due Depositors	\$9,112,309 29
Principal	\$6,977,903 00
Interest credited for	1,134,406 29
1st July, 1872	254,405 06
Excess of Assets over Liabilities	571,434 97
	\$9,683,744 34

Sworn to before me, this 29th day of June, 1872,
W. W. LYON, Notary Public,
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